

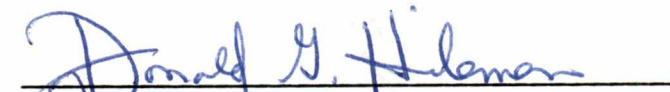
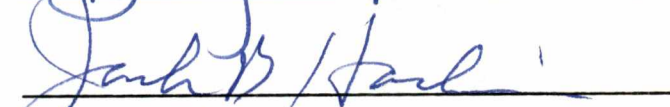
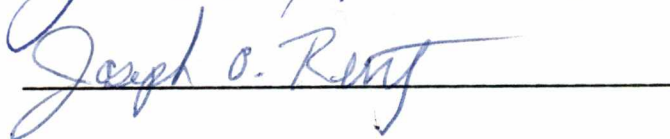
To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Robert Charles Pearce, Jr., entitled "The Effects of Sex-role Reference, Type of Magazine and Employment Status on Women's Responses to Advertisements." I have examined the final copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Communications.



Alan D. Fletcher, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:

Accepted for the Council:



The Graduate School

THE EFFECTS OF SEX-ROLE REFERENCE,
TYPE OF MAGAZINE, AND EMPLOYMENT STATUS
ON WOMEN'S RESPONSES TO ADVERTISEMENTS

A Dissertation
Presented for the
Doctor of Philosophy
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Robert Charles Pearce, Jr.

December 1984

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my wife, Ann. With her sensitivity and caring for others, she opened my eyes and mind to concern for the status of women in today's society. Her support, encouragement and patience throughout this dissertation research made the task easier and worthwhile, but can never be repaid.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine whether different sex-role references in magazine advertisements affected women's reactions to the advertisements, and whether the type of magazine in which the advertisement appeared and the employment status of women also influenced the reactions.

The procedure used was a forced-exposure, post-test only, 4 X 2 X 3 factorial design with repeated measures on the last factor. The sample consisted of 72 women, with 18 subjects in each of four categories of employment status. Two categories of employed women--those who defined themselves as career-oriented and those who considered their employment as "just a job"--and two categories of housewives--those who chose to stay at home and those who planned to work outside the home in the future--formed the four levels of the first factor. The second factor consisted of two types of magazines selected as the media vehicles in the study and defined as either traditional or progressive magazines. The third factor, three types of advertisements which varied in their headlines and were operationally defined as traditional, neutral and progressive approaches, formed the third factor.

Dependent measures consisted of three measures of cognitive responses, attitude toward the advertisements and

two measures of purchase intention. The measures were repeated for all three advertisements for each of the subjects.

Through analysis of variance, the results indicated that at least one of the three factors produced significant effects on all of the dependent measures. Specifically, the type of advertisement tended to dominate the effects. For all but one dependent measure, Traditional advertisements performed significantly poorer than either the Neutral or Progressive advertisements. Women from the two groups of employed women generally rated all of the advertisements lower than women who were not employed. The type of magazine in which the advertisements appeared showed to be an effect mainly when interacting with employment status or the type of advertisement.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

The purpose of this study is to determine whether different sex-role referents in magazine advertisements affect women's reactions to the advertisements, and whether the type of magazine in which the advertisement appears mediates women's reactions to the ads. Particularly, advertisements which refer to women in traditional, neutral, and progressive manners, appearing in traditional and progressive magazines are being studied.

The impetus for this study was derived initially from an informal examination of women's magazines and a more formal examination of the advertising and marketing literature. A quick perusal of magazines such as Ms. and Ladies' Home Journal finds that some advertisements are likely to appear in several magazines. To be sure, there are some differences in the advertisers in each of the magazines, but there are also many identical ads. Because each of these magazines is supported by a widely distinct audience, the question arises as to whether an advertisement appearing in these different magazines, read by different audiences, could have the same effect in each.

A closer examination of the advertisements identical to each type of magazine shows that many of these ads

express traditional values of women in society or portray them in ways that progressive women might find demeaning, even if only mildly so. Conversely, some of these advertisements express the newer, progressive values of women or portray women in the "new roles" some women have adopted. Thus, if the readers of progressive magazines are being exposed to advertisements which support traditional values or portrayals and the readers of more traditional magazines are being exposed to advertisements which support progressive values or roles, then the question of whether these ads are effective becomes even more intriguing.

A letter appearing in the "Letters" column of a recent issue of Ms. magazine demonstrates these points:

The Twin Cities Chapter of NOW would like to express appreciation for Ms. and what it has to offer women that few other magazines do. Ms. expresses a respect for women--our varieties, our strengths, our abilities.

It has become more and more disturbing, however, to find that your advertisements do not reflect what Ms. stands for. In fact, it is rather ironic to have wonderful articles praising the variety of women's bodies, while publishing ads that do not reflect this wonderful diversity--ads that encourage women to conform to what our patriarchal society deems the woman's ideal. Thus, we feel that Ms. magazine's powerful message is being weakened by advertising that features idealized images of women; a lack of minorities, older women, nonperfect women; and liquor, cigarette, and diet ads.

Our media-watch committee works hard to fight negative, stereotyping portrayals of women in all forms of media. We feel especially disheartened when we find the images that we are fighting against contained in a feminist magazine like Ms.. (Ms. Magazine, August 1983)

The above letter demonstrates the concern that some women and women's groups have about advertising directed toward women. Feminists have argued that advertising is one of the stronger social forces that perpetuate certain stereotypes that women are working hard to shed. A typical complaint comes from feminist author, Alice Embree:

The lingerie ad, "Be Some Body" isn't just a cute play on words. It is precisely the advertising message: a woman is supposed to be a body, not a person--a decorated body. If she can successfully manage that transformation, then, she can market herself--for a man. (1970, p. 184-186)

While it may be argued that advertising has changed a great deal in the decade between the publication of Embree's remarks and the present, a content analysis of television advertisements conducted as recently as 1980 showed differently:

. . . while there have been some changes in the numbers of females portrayed in TV ads, there is remarkable consistency between the 1970's studies and the present analysis. . . . Sad to say, television commercials are still . . . typecast after all these years! (Knill, et al., 1981, p.505)

Furthermore, a survey conducted by the advertising agency of Ogilvy & Mather, reports consumers' opinions toward advertising's portrayals of women. Findings from this 1978 study indicate that "One third of consumers feel that TV commercials' portrayal of women is better than it used to be, but a substantial one quarter think the

treatment of women has actually worsened. Another third don't see any change at all" (1978, p. 1).

As shall be shown later in this chapter, it has been documented in the literature that advertising's portrayal of women has been slow to change, while women's self-perceptions and attitudes have been changing fairly rapidly. Reynolds, Cask and Wells (1977, p. 38), for example, indicate that in 1967, 60 percent of American women agreed with the statement: "A woman's place is in the home." In 1974, however, they found only 46 percent agreement with the statement in a nationwide survey. A follow-up study reported by Reynolds and Rentz (1981) indicates that in 1979 the percentage of women agreeing with that statement had dropped even further to 36.4 percent. Although the percentage of women agreeing with the statement increases with the older age groups, the five-year interval between 1974 and 1979 saw a significant drop in agreement even among the oldest age group. In the 65 to 69 year-old age group, agreement with the statement dropped from 68.1 percent in 1974 to 47.1 percent in 1979. (p. 67)

In the early 1970's the National Advertising Review Board (NARB) commissioned a special panel to examine advertising that portrays women or is directed to them. The conclusion of the panel was that there was a problem in the way some advertising portrayed women in a negative and

deprecatory manner, and that to deny that the problem exists, "is to deny the effectiveness of advertising" (NARB, 1974, p. 1). Furthermore, the panel unanimously concluded "that any attempt to improve the situation will accomplish two goals. First, it will provide a greater measure of fair treatment for women. Second, it will be an intelligent marketing decision" (Ibid, p. 2).

Rena Bartos, author and advertising professional, agrees with the NARB conclusions and adds, "It's just plain bad business and bad marketing to insult your customers. And it's plain good business and good marketing to keep in touch with what your customers want and need and how your product fits into their lives" (1982, p. 242).

If it is true that it is good business to reflect the changing status of women in advertising directed toward women, then why does it appear that current advertising hasn't moved away from traditional and stereotypical portrayals of women to a greater extent than it has? One answer may lie in the conventional assertion that advertising doesn't lead society, it merely reflects it. Gilson and Berkman (1980, p. 69) in a recent advertising text, sustain this notion and add that "there is also evidence that the most vocal critics of . . . advertising are more urban, educated and liberal than the majority of people who comprise mass markets for consumer products." In short, in these authors' opinions, the criticism is

coming from a vocal minority who may not reflect the majority.

Aside from the strong implications of elitism, this "vocal minority" argument ignores the fact that it is precisely the more urban and more educated market that many marketers direct their products toward, because this market is also usually the more affluent. It also ignores the social responsibilities of business and advertising to attempt to improve society at the same time as improving the profits of the company.

Another reason advertisers may have been slow to reflect the changing status of women is a lack of evidence that it is, indeed, good business. Or, that progressive advertising is more effective than traditional, conventional--and proven successful--advertising. In short, the attitudes of advertisers may be "better the devil we know, than the devil we don't know." This lack of hard evidence is discussed in the following section.

Sex-Role Portrayal Studies in Advertising

In general, the studies concerning advertising's portrayal of women can be divided into two categories, monitoring studies and effects studies. Of these, the monitoring studies are the more abundant, there being only a handful of effects studies.

Early monitoring studies. Monitoring studies are

usually content analyses of the media taken at different times to determine whether the number and quality of sex-role portrayals, occupational roles, dominant male authority figures and the like exist or have changed from one time to another.

Melvin DeFleur (1964) conducted one of the first content analyses of television when he examined occupational roles portrayed in television programs. Although DeFleur did not examine television advertisements in his study, but the study was one of the first of its kind and served as a model for subsequent monitoring studies.

DeFleur analyzed the content of 250 half-hour broadcast time periods of television programming likely to be watched by children. His concern was the incidental learning about occupations that might be taking place among children watching television. Primarily, he examined four aspects of occupational portrayal: (1) type of occupation, (2) background setting of the occupation, (3) interaction patterns in terms of their relative power, and (4) characteristics of the workers being portrayed.

Among his findings, DeFleur's data indicate that where television programming and women are concerned, compared to the percent of workers in the labor force, women are over-represented as private household workers and clerical workers, and under-represented as sales workers, service

workers, professional and technical workers and laborers.

According to DeFleur:

Over all, the world of work on television is a man's world. It tends also to be a man's world in the actual labor force, but the distribution of the sexes is more unequal for television. Among the televised workers, 83.9 percent were males and only 16.1 percent were females. . . .

It is clear that it would be exceedingly difficult for a young viewer to obtain much accurate information about the distribution of occupations by watching his television screen. . . . These data indicate that television as a source for incidental learning provides distorted ideas and false conceptions about these important characteristics of the distribution of occupations. (p. 65)

Courtney and Lockeretz (1970, 1971) investigated the presence of stereotypes in eight general readership magazines published in April 1970. The authors examined 729 advertisements, and of these, 312 showed one or more adults and were included in the study. In these advertisements, males were depicted more often than females (397 males compared with 278 females), and while 45 percent of the males were depicted in working roles, only 12 percent of the workers shown in the ads were female. Of the working women portrayed in the ads, the largest single category was that of entertainers (58 percent). Not a single advertisement portrayed working women as business executives, professionals or soldiers or policemen. Women were portrayed as non-professional white collar workers in a larger percentage than men, but even in these cases women were portrayed as stewardesses and clerks. The authors

also found that when non-working women were portrayed in magazine advertisements, they were much more likely than men to be portrayed in decorative roles and family roles. Men were more likely than women to be portrayed in recreational roles.

Courtney and Lockeretz concluded "that there were few individual advertisements studied that could be considered offensive to women. Yet, the totality of the picture represented did reflect some cliches about women's roles that are considered by feminists to be highly unflattering" (1970, p. 11). They described these cliches as: (1) a woman's place is in the home, (2) women don't make important decisions or do important things, (3) women are dependent on men, and (4) men regard women primarily as sex objects. Furthermore, they also concluded that while no one advertiser represented in the advertisements studied should be taken to task, when viewed in total, the advertisements present too limited a portrayal of the variety of roles women actually play in society.

Wagner and Banos (1973) conducted a follow-up study in 1972 to the Courtney and Lockeretz study. They found that in the intervening 20 months since the Courtney and Lockeretz study, there had been some increase in the ratio of working women to working men in advertisements in essentially the same magazines studied in 1970. However, Wagner and Banos also reported that a larger proportion of

the non-working women portrayed in the ads were shown in a decorative role. Thus, they concluded that while some changes been made in a relatively short time in the portrayal of the number of working women, in other areas change had been made in a less positive direction.

Sexton and Haberman (1974) took a different approach in their content analysis of magazine advertisements. They examined the advertisements in five magazines, Good Housekeeping, Look, Newsweek, Sports Illustrated, and TV Guide, and for three time spans, July 1950 through June 1951, July 1960 through June 1961 and July 1970 through June 1971. Two hypotheses were tested:

1. Women would generally be shown in situations where interpersonal relations were paramount--e.g., as housewives, mothers, or social companions.
2. The ways in which women were portrayed would over time become more diverse and less traditional in terms of society's expectations. For example, women would be less frequently shown as "decorative" or as "obviously alluring" and would be shown in work situations. (p. 43)

The authors concluded from their analysis of 1,827 ads that:

In general, the trends over two decades did not appear to have moved very far from a limited picture of women as social people appearing in a predictable environment. . . . Some increase was noticed in the number of women who were shown working; yet their tasks remained traditional. Very few ads showed women in circumstances that would be considered atypical by society's standards. (pp. 45-46)

Courtney and Whipple (1974) compared the results of

four content analyses of television commercials (two previously published, and two unpublished) and found consistent results among them. In general, a comparison of the four studies found that men tended to dominate television commercials, being much more likely than women to be employed as off-camera spokespersons (voice-overs) and as authority figures. Women, on the other hand, were typically portrayed as housewives in the home, using the advertised product in the kitchen or bathroom. When women were shown as part of the labor force, they were likely to be found in "women's occupations." Although the authors noted that each of the studies could be criticized on methodological grounds, particularly since each was heavily dependent on coder reliability, they also noted that the consistent findings among the four studies tended to mitigate the methodological concerns.

Magazine advertisements from 1959 through 1971 were the focus of a content analysis study conducted by Vanketesan and Losco (1975). These authors examined a randomly selected group of magazines representing three classifications--general magazines, women's magazines and men's magazines. Each classification group contained four magazines. The magazines yielded 36,455 advertisements, of which 14,378 were analyzed. The results of this analysis indicated that three roles of women were represented most frequently during the period under investigation. These

roles were (1) woman as sexual object, (2) woman as physically beautiful, and (3) woman as dependent on man. The authors also found that during the early period of 1959-63, women were portrayed as housewives more often than in the later periods, and during the 1964-71 period, women were portrayed more often as being concerned with physical beauty.

In the Vanketesan and Losco study, the authors studied only the negatively stereotypical aspects of the advertisements under investigation. The categories for analysis were: (1) woman as dependent on man, (2) woman as overachieving housewife, (3) woman as high-living, (4) woman as physically beautiful, (5) woman as sexual object, (6) woman as sexy, and (7) none of the above categories. It is interesting to note that advertisements in the last category, "none of the above," occurred with about the same level of frequency as each of the other categories. Thus, the study appears to be biased in the direction of detecting only negative portrayals of women while ignoring, perhaps, positive portrayals that were placed in the "none of the above" category. The authors do not fail to make the point, however, that during the thirteen-year period under investigation, very few changes in the negative portrayal of women in magazine advertisements had occurred.

McArthur and Resko (1975) examined male and female models in network television commercials during the Spring

of 1971 and discussed their findings in the context of research which suggests that peoples' sex-role behaviors and attitudes may be influenced by televised models.

These authors found that males comprised 57 percent of the central figures in the television commercials studied, while females comprised 43 percent. Of these central figures, 70 percent of the males were portrayed as authorities, while only 30 percent were portrayed as product users. Only 14 percent of the female central figures were portrayed as authorities, while 85 percent were portrayed as product users.

In examining the roles portrayed by the male and female central figures, females were more likely than males to be portrayed in roles which defined them in terms of their relation to others, such as spouse, girlfriend, parent or housewife. Males on the other hand were more likely than females to be portrayed in roles which defined them independently of others. Furthermore, females in the commercials examined in this study, were more likely to be shown in the home than were the males. The authors concluded with a discussion of the potential for television commercials to function as a socialization force in perpetuating certain attitudes toward women among those who hold such attitudes, and creating these attitudes where none existed before, particularly among children.

Belkaoui and Belkaoui (1976) replicated the 1970 study

of Courtney and Lockeretz and the follow-up study in 1972 of Wagner and Banos and compared the results of these with an examination of magazine advertisements appearing in 1958. The authors asserted that the media are a reflection of society and that the previous studies, which they replicated, did not attempt to assess the results in an historical context. Thus, in the Belkaoui and Belkaoui study, "the presence of stability or change in media content is viewed as an indication that the society in which the media operate is either remaining static or undergoing alteration" (p. 169).

The authors tested four hypotheses concerning the 1958 advertisements:

H1: There is no employment status difference between the ways men and women are portrayed in print advertisements.

H2: There is no occupational role difference between the ways men and women are portrayed in print advertisements.

H3: There is no nonworking role difference between men and women in print advertisements.

H4: There is no difference between men and women in the nature of their buying. (p. 170)

On the basis of statistical analysis, none of the hypotheses above could be supported by the data (chi-square test of significance at .05 level of significance). The results of the analysis of the 1958 ads indicated that the prevailing viewpoint toward women upheld the stereotypes of (1) women as unemployed, (2) women as low income earners,

(3) nonworking women in decorative roles and idle situations, and (4) women have limited purchasing power.

When the authors compared the results of the 1958 study with the results of the 1970 and 1972 studies, they concluded that advertisements had not kept up with the times in portraying women in a wider variety of roles than in 1958. In general, with only a couple of exceptions, the 1970 and the 1972 ads tended to uphold the same stereotypical views of women as did the 1958 ads.

The growing importance of the topic of the media's portrayal of women to researchers in the 1970's is evidenced by the Journal of Communication, which devoted a major portion of the Autumn 1976 issue to the topic, "Equality in Advertising." Three of the studies published in that issue reflect the importance of the topic in communication research.

Culley and Bennett (1976) examined the portrayals of women and blacks in television commercials appearing during one week on a CBS affiliate in Philadelphia. In general they found that women were over-represented in commercials for female cosmetics, personal hygiene products and household products and under-represented in commercials for male cosmetics, cars and car-related products, home appliances, insurances, banks and pet foods. (The authors do not make clear how "representation" is defined or to what it is compared in making their judgements.)

Furthermore, they found that male voices were used 84 percent of the time for voice-overs, while women's voices were used 6 percent of the time and 10 percent were chorus. Additionally, women were found to be under-represented in the various occupational roles portrayed in the television commercials analyzed.

O'Kelly and Bloomquist (1976) also examined the presence of women and blacks in network television commercials over a period of almost a month and compared these with presence of women and blacks in network programming. They found where women are concerned, that although commercials reflected a wider distribution of women than did the programming, the roles portrayed rarely deviated from traditional sex-role divisions.

In another study in the same issue of the Journal of Communication, Poe (1976) examined the presence of "active women" in magazine ads in 1928, 1956 and 1972. "Active" was defined as any ad including a visual reference to physical activity. Comparisons, using a chi-square test of homogeneity, indicated a significantly greater percentage of women in physically active roles in 1928 than in either 1956 or 1972. Contrary to Poe's expectations, there was no significant difference in the percentage of "active" portrayals between the years 1956 and 1972.

Two years later, the Journal of Communication again devoted the majority of its Winter issue to the topic of

women in the media under the title of "What Does 'She' Mean?" Two of the studies published in that issue are presented here.

In one such study, Marecek, et al. (1978) examined network television commercials for the years 1972, 1973 and 1974. Using the same occupational categories as used by Courtney and Lockeretz (1970), they found that in only one category--Professional/Managerial--did the number of women portrayed in that role increase during the three-year period under investigation. They also found women were more likely to be portrayed as salespersonnel, clerks or typists, or service workers when they are portrayed in an occupational setting.

For voice-overs, Marecek found that only 6.5 percent of the commercials used female voices exclusively. Over the three-year period, the proportions of male, female, and male-and-female voice-overs remained constant. Further analysis showed that when a female voice-over was used, she was "segregated" into primarily traditional female area--food, household products, or feminine care products.

These authors also examined the commercials for authority roles, defined as those in the commercial who, while either on or off camera, "possessed more information or superior credentials relative to the other characters and who delivered authoritative statements to the viewers or to the other characters" (p. 161). They found that when

a woman was used as an on-camera authority, she was often paired with a male voice-over who literally got in the last word. Thus, the authors concluded that even though a superficial analysis showed an increase in the number of female on-camera authorities, the effect of this was diluted by the fact that a male authority usually got in the last word. The authors noted that often this was true even in the area of traditional female domain--household products, food and personal care products.

O'Donnell and O'Donnell (1978) conducted a content analysis of network television commercials over a 15-day period in 1976 to "determine if there [had] been any significant change in the degree of sex-role stereotyping" (p. 156). Looking only at prime-time commercials, these authors found essentially the same findings as in previous studies. Namely, they found that males still dominated the role of voice-over (93 percent), females were more likely to represent domestic products, and males were more likely to represent non-domestic products. When the setting for the commercial was in the home, women were more likely to be the product representative and when the setting was out of the home, men were more likely to represent the product.

It might be beneficial if the above rather lengthy discussion of these monitoring studies was summarized at

this time. Several points can be made about these studies by way of summary. First, although many of them could be criticized from a methodological standpoint, the almost overwhelming consistency of their findings tends to negate these methodological considerations. Second, a few of the studies were replications of previous studies, and in each case the findings of the first study were upheld in the second.

Third, the later studies tended to examine more closely the portrayals of women in advertisements and tended to show that although some superficial progress had been made in the number of women shown in different roles (for example, in the use of women as experts), a more qualitative analysis showed that advertisers still had not overcome their reluctance to totally abandon stereotypes and the "known" quantity of the male authority. In large, women were still being relegated to traditional roles, environments and products in advertisements. In short, these studies tended to demonstrate that in whatever time frame a researcher chose to look--before, during or after the Women's Movement had begun--advertising had changed its portrayal of women very little.

It may be noted that all of the above studies were either conducted or published prior to 1976--eight years ago at the time of this writing. However, much of the activity of the early 70's in the way of published

monitoring studies was not matched in the late 70's and early 80's. Indeed, in the last few years only a few monitoring studies have been published in the literature, particularly the advertising and marketing literature, but also in the women's issues literature and the social-psychological literature in general.

Recent monitoring studies. Weinberger, Petroschius and Westin (1979) provide one such study. Their study is essentially an update of the early content analyses conducted by Courtney and Lockeretz (1971), Wagner and Banos (1973), and Belkaoui and Belkaoui (1976). Following the methods of these previous studies, magazine advertisements from 1978 were analyzed and the results were compared to the findings of analyses conducted for the years 1958, 1970, and 1972. The authors found that the proportion of females portrayed in occupational roles had actually declined from 21.0 percent in 1972 to 12.2 percent in 1978. However, there were some encouraging findings presented in this particular study. In the occupational categories, both the percentage of men and women had increased in the Professional category from the earlier studies to 1978. Also, the percentage of women portrayed in middle-level management occupations had more than doubled in 1978 from the previous years, and had declined in the area of secretarial/clerical occupation portrayals.

In examining changes in the types of products

associated with either of the two sexes in advertisements, the authors found some rather surprising results. Analysis of the 1978 advertisements revealed that in two product categories previously dominated by females--food products and home furnishings--males dominated. Females still dominated other traditional female product areas, such as beauty products and clothing, but had dominated the travel advertising category for the first time. Thus, the authors concluded, that although there still existed male and female product domains, there seemed to be occurring a greater flexibility on the part of advertisers in the use of male and female models in certain categories.

Scheibe (1979) analyzed over 6,000 television commercials aired from October 1975 to March 1976. Scheibe found, that compared to previous studies, women were less likely to be shown in domestic settings, there was a larger percentage of both men and women in the higher-level occupational roles, and the number of women shown working outside the home was roughly equal to the number of women shown inside the home. Scheibe, as did previous researchers, found a tendency for women to be under-represented in relation to their position in the nation's work force.

Knill, et al. (1981) conducted the most recently published content analysis study this writer was able to find. Their method was to code 1,631 commercials aired on

the three networks during a week in July 1980, during both daytime and prime-time dayparts.

During the daytime daypart, the authors found that male voices were used as voice-overs 92 percent of the time, while female voice-overs were used just 8 percent in commercials with voice-overs. Females were more likely than males during this daypart to be used in commercials as product representatives or as consumers--for all product categories. Additionally, during this daypart, commercials for household products, food and beverage products, personal hygiene, over-the-counter drugs, and female cosmetics dominated the schedule. Absent or almost absent were commercials for cars and car related products, travel and male cosmetics.

During primetime, the situation changed only slightly. Males again dominated the role of voice-over (90 percent) compared to women (10 percent). The largest percentage of female voice-overs was for female cosmetics. And, as with the daytime daypart, females tended to represent traditional female product categories, such as food, household products, and the like, while males tended to represent traditional male and high-ticket products such as cars, car-related products and travel. Thus, the authors concluded that although there have been some changes in the use of women in television commercials since the studies conducted in the early 1970's, "there is still remarkable

consistency between the 1970's studies and the present analysis" (p. 504).

The addition of the above more recent studies to this overview changes the conclusions that can be drawn from these and previous studies only slightly. It is fairly evident that the changes women are experiencing in society and the workforce are happening at a much faster rate than the portrayals of women as reflected in advertising. Critics claim that at worst, advertising's portrayal of women slows the progress being made toward a more positive status of women, may harm children's growing perceptions of the roles men and women play in society, and at best, maintains the status quo by reinforcing cultural stereotypes. They also say that advertising which does these things is insulting and offensive to women and should go the way of other negative media stereotypes--like the Frito Bandito and Steppin Fetchit--and be banished forever.

Many, if not most, of the content analyses presented above imply a cause-and-effect relationship between the negative or stereotypical portrayal of women in advertisements and negative social consequences. A few imply that these negative portrayals may also have a negative economic effect. Women, for example, have been advised by National Organization for Women (NOW) chapters and other women's groups to boycott advertisers deemed unresponsive to change. However, there is no available

information on any successful boycotts or any negative economic impact against advertisers. Thus, the content analysis studies may have served to raise the sensitivity of advertisers to the new roles of women, but have provided very little evidence to support changing strategies and campaigns in order to accommodate "the new woman."

Advertisers are especially reluctant to change and go in a new, and unknown, direction when the existing strategies seem to be working. Advertisers must have a stronger reason than social responsibility to change direction. They must be given evidence in the form of higher recall for their advertisements, more positive attitudes toward the product, and better sales before they are likely to respond. This kind of evidence cannot be gleaned from a content analysis, since this type of study only examines the content of advertisements in a post-hoc manner and infers from the content certain conditions and relations about that being studied.

Effects studies. The studies examining the effects of sex-role portrayals and/or stereotypes in advertising can be divided into two groups--those studies examining social effects, and those examining advertising or economic effects. We shall examine those dealing with social effects first.

Tan (1979) briefly reviewed the "media cultivation studies" or content analyses that imply a cause-and-effect

relationship between media content and media-emphasized views of social reality, and concluded that these studies rely heavily on survey design and do not adequately detect cause-and-effect relationships. Tan's study differed from previous studies primarily in the use of an experimental design to determine whether certain "beauty" commercial affected the viewers' perceptions of social reality.

One independent variable was manipulated in this study and seven dependent variables were measured. The independent variable was exposure to TV beauty commercials, and the dependent variables were four "real-life" roles: success in career or job; success as a wife; to be popular (or liked by) men; and, to be personally desirable as a woman. The three other dependent variables measured were commercial retention, liking for the commercials, and perceived commercial effectiveness. The general hypothesis tested was that subjects exposed to the TV beauty commercials would rate sex appeal, youth and beauty characteristics more important in the four defined role relationships than subjects not exposed to the beauty commercials.

Fifteen actual beauty commercials and fifteen absence of beauty (control) commercials were shown to 56 high school girls with measures of dependent variables occurring immediately after exposure. The results tended to support the hypothesis in the roles, "liked by men" and "to be

desirable." The ratings did not differ significantly between the experimental and control groups for the roles "success in job or career" and "success as a wife." Commercial retention was higher among subjects exposed to the beauty ads, although the beauty ads were rated as being less effective than the neutral commercials. Tan concluded that the effects tended to support the general theoretical model of television's "cultivation" role in society and supported the cause-and-effect inferences usually drawn in content analysis studies.

Jennings, Geis and Brown (1980) investigated the impact of television commercials on women's self-confidence and independent judgment. Their method was to refilm four commercials that showed women in stereotypical roles to produce eight commercials. In all eight of the commercials, the background settings, props, and dialog duplicated the original commercials as closely as possible. Four of the eight refilmed commercials duplicated the original commercials, the other four reversed the roles of the male and female actors in the commercials. For example, instead of showing a woman being concerned about the food she was about to serve her husband, as in the original commercial, the new commercial showed a man being concerned about the food he was about to serve his wife.

Fifty-two female undergraduate students were shown all four commercials, from either the role-reversal group or the

duplicated original group. The subjects were then asked to rate the commercials and participate in two tasks designed to measure self-confidence and independent judgement. Results of this experiment indicated that the subjects exposed to the role-reversal commercials tended to be judged as more self-confident and able to think more independently during the tasks than those subjects exposed to the original commercials. The authors concluded with the following remarks.

. . . this research strongly implies that even if women do not buy the advertised product, they buy the implicit image of femininity conveyed by the commercials, whether they know it or not. A long line of research in social psychology demonstrates that if behavior can be changed first, changes in attitude will follow. The present work . . . supports the idea that television commercials in which females behave in a powerful way may have more effect, in the long run, than numerous persuasive (but less vivid) discussions about women's changing sex roles. (p. 209)

In an early study of women's role portrayal and advertising effectiveness, Wortzel and Frisbie (1974) examined women's preferences for roles portrayed in advertisements by having women design advertisements for certain products. The authors hypothesized that women would prefer products when the advertisement for the product portrayed a woman in a career or neutral role than when portrayed in a sex-object, family or more traditional role.

The subjects were given two portfolios, one which

contained pictures of products, and the other contained pictures of women. The product portfolio contained pictures of three products in each of seven product categories: small appliances, large appliances, women's grooming products, women's personal products, household products, foods, and men's grooming and personal products. The portfolio of women's pictures contained pictures of women in five roles: neutral, family, career, sex object, and fashion object. The subjects were then asked to match the product photographs with the photographs of the women which would most increase the desirability of the product in their eyes. In other words, the subjects were asked to "build the advertisement which would be most likely to make [them] want to buy the product" (p. 42). After each woman had accomplished the task of building the ads, she was given a self-administered questionnaire designed to measure attitudes toward the "Women's Liberation Movement".

In general, Wortzel and Frisbie found that there was no one role portrayal preference that consistently enhanced the product's desirability for all the product types. Furthermore, they found that for products used in the home or by families, the traditional, home setting was preferred. And, for products used by women alone, the neutral or career settings were preferred. The authors concluded that preference for a particular type of role portrayal was evidently product specific and that

generalizations across product lines could not be made.

When the authors examined the results of the ad building by those subjects who were most predisposed to the tenets of the Women's Movement, they again found that role preference was product specific. They also found that in all but two of the product categories--small and large appliances--the women favoring the Women's Movement were not significantly different in their preferences than the other women. The authors came to the following conclusion.

For advertisers, the results of this study should come as good news. Advertisements showing women may, it seems, portray those women in household roles if these roles provide an appropriate usage environment for the product and reinforce and support the product's end benefits. If the product is one that is normally used in a household environment, then women (both liberationists and nonliberationists) prefer to see it in this type of setting generating some kind of distinctive benefit to a woman who would normally be using it. If the product is one that women use personally, which somehow enhances their concept of themselves as women, then nontraditional roles are preferred. These preference patterns are expressed by liberationists and nonliberationists alike. (p. 46)

The above study can be criticized on several points. First, their "experimental" method is questionable. Although the authors indicated that a "no preference" choice was available to the subjects in building the advertisements, this is not the same as a "some other preference" choice, which was not available to the subjects. In other words, the subjects tended to be forced into the limited role portrayals available to them.

Indeed, the only non-traditional role available was that of "career."

It does not seem logical to expect women--regardless of their politics--to choose a career role to build an ad for a household or food product. Thus, instead of the subjects building the ads based on their preferences, as requested, it seems just as likely that they could have been building the ads based on what would be logically appropriate for the ad. The results of the study could just as likely be attributed to a culturation effect of the subjects having seen countless advertisements showing household products in the house and personal products being used personally, as to be attributed to preferences on the part of the subjects.

Witkowski (1974) developed an antonym scale designed to measure women's perceived self-image, ideal self-image and advertisement image. Using this scale, 100 college women rated their self-image, their ideal image, and the image portrayed in 30 advertisements gleaned from three different magazines (Cosmopolitan, Newsweek and Playboy). One side of the scale represented a feminist orientation and the other side of the scale represented a more traditional orientation. As hypothesized, the women's ideal self-image was closer to the feminist orientation than their perceived self-image, but both were much closer to the feminist orientation than the advertisement image.

The author concluded that "by showing women in a greater variety of useful roles and less as decorations or housewives, advertisements would be a more accurate reflection of how women view themselves and not how admen picture them" (p. 434).

Perhaps the only criticism that can be made about this study is in the choice of sample. By using only college women, the external validity of the study is severely limited, due to the fact that it could be expected that college students would tend to be more attuned to the changing roles of women and would aspire to a more feminist orientation than women in the general population. Thus, the strength of the conclusions to be drawn from this study is, unfortunately, diminished.

Duker and Tucker (1977) were concerned that pro-feminist views might be a fad or a passing attitude and that marketers who made creative and media decisions based on that characteristic of women could be making a strategic error if the pro-feminist view passed out of fashion. They hypothesized that pro-feminist views could be related to a more central personality characteristic and sought to determine the relationship of this personality trait with pro-feminist views and perceptions of advertisements. The personality trait they felt most closely related to pro-feminism was independence, as measured by the Barron test of independence.

The authors used seven actual advertisements chosen to represent the projected images of woman as mother, sex object, glamour girl, housewife, working mother, modern woman, and professional. These advertisements were shown to 104 female college students who were then asked to indicate their responses to the advertisements by answering a set of test and filler questions. The responses to the questions were coded by the interviewer at the time of the interview as either being pro-feminist or "all other." The "all other" responses were then labeled under the general rubric of "traditionalist." Upon completion of the advertisement evaluations, subjects were administered a test battery consisting of the test of independence as well as the Wortzel and Frisbie pro-feminism scale. Analysis of covariance was used to operationalize independence of judgement as a moderator variable of pro-feminism, providing an adjusted score of the pro-feminism score. Based on these scores, the subjects were then classified as either pro-feminist, neutral, or a traditionalist.

A chi-square analysis of the three groups' reactions to the test advertisements revealed no significant differences among the groups in their perceptions of the portrayal or roles of women shown in the advertisements. Indeed, the authors reported that the pro-feminists and the traditionalists did not differ at all in their liking or disliking of the test ads. In conclusion, the authors

agree with the conclusions of Wortzel and Frisbie that advertisers should move with caution before changing creative strategies. Duker and Tucker said, "Advertisers, especially those who look to the long run, should be cautious about confusing what might be considered alleged 'in vogue' attitudes with more deeply rooted value changes" (p. 475).

As with the previously discussed studies, this one too can be criticized on the basis of the sample used--college students. However, as the authors point out, college students would probably be more predisposed to the tenets of the pro-feminism movement and would, if anything, tend to bias the results of the study in that direction. This study may also be criticized on more serious methodological grounds than the sample selection. First, the method of evaluating the test advertisements by the subjects is questionable. The subjects were asked to respond to the ads by making statements in reaction to the woman or the role in the ad. These statements were then coded by the researchers as being either a pro-feminist statement or other. As mentioned above, all the "other" statements were scored as being "traditionalist." This method of scoring could naturally tend to lead to more responses of a traditionalist nature than a pro-feminist nature, since even neutral or unrelated responses would be scored as traditionalist. And, the presence of two male

interviewers, who also happen to be college professors, raises the question of the presence of interviewer bias and subject compliance.

Furthermore, the authors' method of categorizing women as either pro-feminist, neutral or traditionalist, also seems suspect. As indicated above, the authors used the women's liberation test score adjusted by the Barron independence of judgement score to classify the subjects into the three categories. However, the authors chose to use an arbitrary cut-off point in order to achieve a tripartite classification scheme of approximately three equal parts. This may or may not be a valid procedure, but the real question concerns the lack of statistically significant differences in the scores among these groups. This could be interpreted to mean that the three groups were essentially homogeneous in respect to feminsim/traditionalism. Thus, in light of the methodological impurities present in this study, the conclusions drawn by these authors should be viewed skeptically.

Whipple and Courtney (1980) after reviewing the role preference studies cited above, found these studies methodologically limited in three areas: (1) sample design, (2) choice and manipulation of advertising stimuli, and (3) effectiveness measures. With these previous studies as impetus, these authors designed a study intended to measure

"in a more realistic way the influence of role depictions on evaluations of effectiveness and irritation" (p. 54).

In this particular study, a probability sample of women and a representative sample of manufacturer and advertising agency practitioners evaluated selected on-air commercials and test commercials. The test commercials were produced by an international advertising agency (not named by the authors) and were designed to incorporate several components of role portrayal, including sex and role of the product representative, role of supporting actors, sex of the voice-over, and the tasks performed by the actors. Multiple measures of advertising evaluations were obtained from all respondents.

Six commercials were used in the test--two on-air commercials and four test commercials. The two on-air commercials were selected because they represented extremes in the way women were portrayed in commercials. One showed a mother-in-law suggesting to her daughter-in-law that she use a certain brand of detergent in order to improve the cleanliness of her son's dishes. This commercial was deemed to be traditional. The second on-air commercial showed a female executive and her male assistants. This woman used a certain brand of personal deodorant so that she would not have to be concerned with perspiration while she worked.

For the four test commercials, the authors chose a

food and a cleaning product because these products receive many complaints about their portrayal of women. For each product two ads were developed by the advertising agency. One ad was deliberately designed to show a traditional portrayal, while the other was designed to show a progressive portrayal, without being extreme or unrealistic.

The traditional food commercial (breakfast food) showed a full-time housewife preparing breakfast for her husband and children and used a male voice-over. The progressive version for the same product showed the family cooperating in preparing the breakfast as the mother prepared for work. The voice-over was a woman. The traditional version of the cleaning product (floor cleaner) ad showed two women competing in a mopping contest conducted by a male. The progressive commercial for the same product showed a husband and wife competing in the same contest, conducted by a female product representative, with a female voice-over.

Subsamples of the subjects were shown either the traditional commercials or the progressive commercials. Evaluations of the commercials by the women consumers were based on two sets of measure: (1) the percent of respondents who correctly played back the major selling points of each ad (unaided recall) and (2) ratings on a

five-point scale of how well 14 evaluative items described each ad. Nine of the evaluative items were taken from a reaction profile developed by Wells, Leavitt and McConville (1971) and the remaining five were developed by the authors. A factor analysis of the 14 evaluative items revealed two main categories--an effectiveness category and an advertising irritation category. Demographic information; a measure of exaggerated masculinity/femininity, which represented a "liberation" score; and responses to a scale designed to measure individual self-acceptance were elicited from the consumer subjects. Practitioners were asked to evaluate the commercials using the same evaluative items as above, and were also asked (p. 56), "If in your present occupation you decided to run this ad, would you receive any opposition?" The authors sought reasons for opposition where opposition was expected by the practitioners.

The authors found no significant differences among the subsamples where commercial playback was the measure. All six of the commercials received fairly high levels of recall. There seemed to be no effect of the role depictions on recall, although the practitioners tended to recall the progressive test ads better than the traditional ads.

When advertising effectiveness was the measure, the on-air commercials showed no significant differences among

the subsamples in their evaluation of the commercials' effectiveness. Both consumers and practitioners considered both versions of the mopping contest relatively ineffective. But, both groups rated the progressive versions of the test commercials more effective than the traditional version.

There were also no significant differences between the ratings of the consumers and practitioners on advertising irritation with the two on-air commercials. Both groups rated the traditional detergent commercial as the most irritating of the six. Practitioners tended to rate the progressive role portrayals of the breakfast food commercial and the floor-cleaner commercial lower in irritation than the traditional versions. The consumers tended to rate both versions of the commercials similarly. Indeed, although there was no significant difference between the consumers' ratings of the traditional and progressive ads' irritation, the consumers tended to rate the progressive version of the food and cleaning product ads slightly more irritating than their traditional counterparts. It is interesting to note that the practitioners found the traditional commercials, in general, more irritating than did the consumers. The practitioners in this study also felt that they would receive more opposition from the traditional commercials than they would from the progressive commercials.

Whipple and Courtney drew three general conclusions from this study.

. . . progressive sex-role portrayals in television commercials [were found] to be at least equally preferred to, and in some cases more preferred than, traditional advertising approaches. . . . Commercials portraying female product representatives showing working housewives, depicting men participating in household tasks, and using female voice-overs were rated as effective as matched commercials employing more traditional portrayals. . . . But the research shows that exaggerated and unreal presentations of the sexes, be they traditional or progressive in style, cause significant consumer irritation. (p. 58)

The authors also add that the "best variation of the role portrayal of the sexes will likely differ from product to product and segment to segment" (p. 58).

In making this last statement, Whipple and Courtney tend to support the conclusions from the previous studies that sex-role portrayal is product specific and that segmentation may be the most effective way for an advertiser to direct his or her message at the consuming public.

Whipple and Courtney also provide some evidence that advertisers have become sensitive to the women's issue. Rarely seen these days, for example, are ads using a decorative nude or scantily-clad female which serves no purpose than to grab the attention of and titillate the males in the audience. Or, the vapid, helpless housewife--dependent on the expertise of the male announcer to solve life's smallest problems--is almost an extinct being.

Concerning this, Bartos (1982, p. 244) comments that

she has "never personally observed anyone in the advertising business consciously deciding to insult, demean, or condescend to women as they go about planning and creating advertising campaigns. People . . . simply do not sit around and plot how they can find new ways to put women down in their ads."

The issue then, may not be one sexism so much as it is an issue of the inaccuracy of the portrayal of women in advertising. It is true that stereotypes communicate quickly. And, that given the time and space constraints of most advertisements, speed of communication is usually of paramount importance. However, in light of the previously discussed research, the accuracy of the stereotypes can, indeed, be questioned. The question thus becomes: Are women of today seeing a realistic reflection of themselves in advertisements? Of course, the most likely answer to this question is, some do and some don't. This answer, in turn, may lead an advertising strategist to suppose that audience and/or market segmentation may be the logical solution to the problem.

In her book, The Moving Target, Bartos said that segmentation may be the obvious answer, but not necessarily the correct one. She divided the adult female population of the United States into four groups which she called the "New Demographics" of women. These four groups are: the stay-at-home housewives, the plan-to-work housewives, the

"just a job" working women, and the career-oriented working women. Bartos averred that this description is both a more descriptive and accurate portrayal of women's roles in society and the workforce, than the conventional method of dividing women into working and non-working groups. Also, contrary to previous research, it does not depend on measures of predisposition to the Women's Movement to be descriptive.

After establishing her New Demographics, Bartos then researched whether there were any differences among these four groups in areas of importance to advertisers and marketers. Although the data used in her study were proprietary and were not presented, her conclusions were that differences did indeed exist in buying behavior, demographics, psychographics and media habits.

Next, Bartos conducted a study of women from across the country and from each of the four New Demographic segments in order to find how they viewed advertisements aimed at women. Again, the findings are proprietary and not presented, but her general methodology and conclusions may be discussed.

Bartos pretested a group of television commercials in small groups of women to elicit attitudinal statements about the commercials and to reduce the number of commercials to be used in the test. Twelve test commercials were deliberately chosen to represent the range

of portrayals of women and a set of attitudinal statements were developed (actual statements and their number were not presented by the author). The commercials were then presented to the women who responded to them using the attitudinal statements scaled from "liked very much" to "disliked very much."

This study found that although the women were not unanimously positive or negative about any of the commercials, some clear patterns emerged.

Four of the commercials elicited predominantly favorable responses from the women who saw them.

Four had mixed reactions: they were controversial or bland.

Four received predominantly unfavorable responses.
(p. 249)

Although there were some differences among the groups in their responses to the commercials, overall, the women responded most favorably to the contemporary commercials. These commercials were described by Bartos as those that showed the changing roles of women and changing life styles.

Conversely, the four commercials eliciting the most negative responses were those using traditional depictions. Two of the commercials were the "typical housewife" type, and one was a bra commercial that used an overt sex-object treatment. The fourth commercial was reacted to negatively (according to Bartos), not because of the portrayal of

women (which was deemed to be progressive), but because of the nature of the product being advertised--a feminine hygiene product.

Two of the commercials drawing mixed responses were for fragrances. One showed a woman after a busy day around the house taking a bath and using the fragrance in preparation for a romantic evening with her husband (traditional portrayal). The second fragrance commercial showed a woman in three roles, as breadwinner, housewife and wife in a very sexy manner (progressive portrayal). Positive and negative responses to these commercials were divided among the groups. The remaining two commercials in this group did not elicit either strong positive or strong negative responses. One commercial was for a vitamin and showed vignettes of women in various active situations (progressive portrayal). The other was for an automobile tire and showed a woman in a highly fear-producing situation and presented the tire as a safety precaution (traditional portrayal).

The reactions to the commercials were neatly divided into three categories. As Bartos expected, the traditional commercials received the most negative response and the progressive commercials received the most positive response. However, it is the middle group--those commercials drawing mixed responses--that require a little more analysis.

Of the commercials in the middle, two of them were considered to be progressive and two were deemed traditional. Of these, the evaluations of the progressive fragrance ad and the automobile tire can perhaps be explained by the influence of other factors in addition to the role portrayal. For example, the progressive fragrance advertisement, although not identified by the author, is obviously an ad for Aviance perfume which was subjected to criticism by some women on the grounds that it unrealistically portrayed women as "superwomen" and generated unreasonable expectations that a woman should "bring home the bacon, fry it up in a pan, and never let him forget he's a man." As one feminist cartoonist said, "That woman must be on drugs."

In the commercial for the automobile tire, Bartos said that the women did not react to what was assumed to be a portrayal of women as helpless and naive about tires and mechanical things, but instead saw the situation as affecting anyone. Thus, the women did not react to the portrayal, but to the situation.

Bartos concluded her discussion of this study by saying that when the responses to all twelve commercials are averaged, each New Demographic group of women had slightly different reaction patterns:

Stay-at-home housewives were more approving of the commercials overall than were any other segment of the women.

Plan-to-work housewives, on the other hand, were the most critical of the test commercials.

"Just a job" working women were less involved with the advertising than any of the other segments.

Career-oriented working women had strong reactions, both positive and negative. On balance, they were second only to the stay-at-home housewives in their approval of the test commercials. (p. 252)

Bartos concluded from the above evidence that in many cases, segmentation of audience by message or strategy is not the most efficient way to reach the majority of women. Instead, she asserted that, "The chances are that a single creative strategy will work if it is built on positive, contemporary imagery and avoids put-down cliches" (p. 270).

By not reporting any of the actual data from her study, Bartos has severely limited the usefulness of her findings. The results are provocative and promising, but there still seems to be room for additional interpretations.

She found, for example, that stay-at-home housewives and career-oriented working women were the least critical of the advertisements used in the test, and that the plan-to-work housewives and the "just a job" working women were the most critical. These findings could be interpreted to mean that the women who seem to be most satisfied with their respective roles in society, are also

the most satisfied with commercial representations of the roles of women. However, Bartos also reported that the career-oriented women had both strong positive and strong negative reactions to the test commercials. Again, it is unfortunate that she did not report which particular commercials elicited the strong positive reactions or the strong negative reactions from this group of women. It might be found, then, that this group of women reacted positively to the progressive portrayal and negatively to the traditional portrayal. Furthermore, Bartos herself indicated that each group of women had a slightly different reaction pattern to the commercials. This statement, alone, indicates room for further interpretation and analysis. Thus, without the benefit of hard evidence, Bartos' study and conclusions can only be viewed with mild skepticism and frustration. What could have been a major contribution to the understanding of the women's market and the reaction of women to current role portrayals is severely limited by the proprietary nature of the data.

Summary of Advertising Sex-Role Studies

A few general conclusions may be drawn from the above review of the sex-role studies in advertising. First, after examining the so-called monitoring studies, it is fairly evident that advertising has failed to keep up with the rapidly changing status of women in society. Study

after study consistently reported this finding. Even though these studies may be methodologically flawed in some cases, the preponderance of evidence supports the feminists' criticisms of advertising.

However, until the late 1970's no research had been conducted on what effects, if any, these traditional portrayals could be having on women or on business. Up to that point, a cause-and-effect relationship was assumed to exist between advertising's negative portrayal of women and how women are perceived by themselves and by society. In two studies cited here, evidence was provided that advertising can have an effect on how women perceive themselves. In general, the more progressive the portrayal, the better women feel about themselves. It was also strongly implied in these studies, and the content analyses, that the better women feel about themselves, the more productive they will be in society by fulfilling their potential.

Of more interest to advertisers and marketers, perhaps, are the studies which were conducted to examine which role portrayals women preferred in advertisements. The assumption underlying these studies was that preference for a particular role would tend to lead to a preference for the product. Two of these studies: Wortzel and Frisbie (1974) and Duker and Tucker (1977) tended to show that, at best, role preferences were product specific and

recommended maintaining the status quo in advertising. On the other hand, two of the studies: Whipple and Courtney (1980) and Bartos (1982) tended to show that a more progressive role is at least equal to a more traditional role in advertising in terms of effectiveness. And, Witkowski showed that the portrayal of women in advertising is distinctly different from women's self-images and ideal images. Thus, it appears that the jury is still out on whether a progressive role or a traditional role is more effective across the board, or whether any single portrayal of women can be effective among all women. The evidence seems to be pointing in at least two directions at once.

All of the above studies--with the exception, perhaps, of the Whipple and Courtney research--are limited along several dimensions. First, they are no longer timely. Conducted, to a large extent, some seven or eight years ago, they may no longer represent the attitudes or preferences of women toward advertising roles. Indeed, time has shown that contrary to the views of Duker and Tucker, the feminist movement was not, and evidently is not a passing fad. Second, limitations of sample selection severely limit the generalizability of these studies. For the most part, college students were used as subjects. And, even though college students can be "real people" and may be valid subjects, not enough research has been gathered about other women to provide advertisers,

researchers and theoreticians with much guidance. Third, the evaluation procedures of all of the studies were limited in that none measured the behavioral intent of the subjects toward the products being advertised, even though it was implied that preferences toward a particular role portrayal would lead to a preference in the product advertised. Indeed, only the Whipple and Courtney study, as well as Bartos, systematically measured women's actual attitudes toward the advertisements. Yet, even these studies stopped short of measuring their attitudes toward the product and only measured the affective and cognitive components of the attitudes. And, fourth, none of the studies examined the effects of advertisements imbedded in their natural environment--the media. All of the studies had the subjects evaluate the test advertisements in isolation, which is not where they are encountered by women on a day-to-day basis.

The dissertation study presented here attempts to eliminate some of the problems of previous research in this area by placing test advertisements in actual magazines, thus creating a more natural environment for their evaluation. This study also uses as subjects women selected from the general population and representing a wide range of ages, occupations, incomes and other important factors. Furthermore, the study is an attempt to attach the topic of women's reactions to advertisements to

a theoretical foundation drawn from Information Processing Theory. In particular, the cognitive processes leading to women's evaluations of print advertisements is examined, as well as the evaluations themselves.

Problem Statement

The general problem addressed in this dissertation is whether different sex-role referents in print advertisements directed toward women, and placed in magazines with traditional and progressive stances, have the same or different effects. Particularly, traditional, neutral and progressive sex-role referents in advertisements, placed in traditional and progressive magazines, and their relation to such advertising effects as aided and unaided recall of advertisement content, attitudes toward the advertisements, and intentions to purchase the product are examined. Additionally, audience members' cognitive processes leading up to the evaluation of the advertisements are also analyzed.

Throughout this study the terms "traditional, neutral and progressive" are used in reference to both advertisements and magazines. In this study, the term "traditional" refers to advertisements or magazines which focus on roles of women which are considered to be traditionally based. Such roles include, but are not limited to, those as housewife, object of sexual

attraction, concerned with physical beauty, and dependent on man.

"Neutral" is a focus which does not deliberately refer to sex role. "Progressive" refers to advertisements or magazines which take a stance of referring to women in the workforce or in politically and/or sexually liberated roles. There is a danger in adopting such terms for this study in that it could be viewed that there is an implied value judgment that one role is better than another. However, no such value judgment is intended. These terms were selected because of their common interpretation by other researchers in this field and for their value as descriptive and nomitive adjectives.

This study is important in that it departs from the previous studies somewhat in method, but particularly in measurement. To date, none of the previously mentioned studies have examined what role (if any) the advertising media vehicle plays in mediating the effects of the advertisements. Additionally, no studies have examined the cognitive processes occurring as women evaluate advertisements directed toward them.

It is well known that advertisers spend millions of dollars on advertisements aimed at the public, including women. At the same time, not much is known about how women are reacting to these advertisements. On one side, the feminists argue that much advertising aimed at women is

stereotyping, demeaning, degrading, insulting, offensive, irritating, and probably ineffective. On the other side, advertisers argue that in spite of these criticisms, women continue purchasing the products being advertised, and that should be the real test of the effectiveness of advertising. It has been argued that it is not advertising's purpose to try to raise society to a higher point, or to entertain or even be pleasurable. Advertising's purpose is to sell products and services and to make a profit for the advertiser.

As extreme as these two points of view are, the question addressed by this research is whether or not both sides of the issue can be satisfied through empirical evidence. This research is an attempt to determine if advertising can be both a benefit to society by portraying women in the manner in which they prefer, and a benefit to advertisers through increased effectiveness of their advertising and increased understanding of a major market for their products and services--women. It stands to reason that advertising does not have to insult or demean to be effective, or even that it has to continue to travel the conventional path. The key is in finding the appropriate new paths to follow and to provide some assurances that these are indeed the paths to be followed--at least until society changes again.

The purpose of this study, then, is to explore the

three paths of traditional, neutral and progressive role portrayals for a short distance and to report back which of these paths appear to be the most effective. The study is truly exploratory in that it is not known what might be found down these paths. Previous explorers (to continue the metaphor) have sent back conflicting reports, which could indicate that more than one path may be appropriate.

This study is limited to the extent that most laboratory-type experiments are limited. The sample size is relatively small; the exposure to the test advertisements is forced; and the exposure environment is unnatural. It is also limited in that only print advertisements and a handful of all the magazines which may be read by women form the study stimuli. However, every precaution to assure the most realistic situation possible has been taken in order to minimize biasing, subject sensitivity, and error, and to optimize reliability, validity, and, generalizability.

CHAPTER II

INFORMATION PROCESSING THEORY

Introduction

The behavioral sciences have continually provided advertising with a theoretical base from which to operate. One particular body of theory--information processing--has been especially attractive to advertisers and marketers as a descriptive model of how advertising works and as a general theory from which research questions may be derived.

The information processing paradigm has received wide practical and theoretical adaptation resulting in a number of modeling efforts. McGuire (1969, 1973) uses it in the development of a discussion of attitude formation and change. Engel, Kollat and Blackwell (1978), Howard and Sheth (1969), and McGuire (1976), relate it to consumer behavior, while Colley (1961) and Lavidge and Steiner (1961) and others apply it to advertising.

The essence of the information processing approach, according to McGuire (1973, p. 228) is that it, "attempts to tease out exhaustively the logically necessary steps between being presented with a persuasive communication and ultimate compliance with its directives." As the name implies, this view sees the individual as being a processor

of information and places its primary emphasis on the cognitive processes through which information must pass in order to affect behavior or add to knowledge. Furthermore, these cognitive processes are seen as being both purposive and directive. They are purposive in that they serve to point up unfulfilled needs within individuals, and directive in that they then provide the individual with likely means for satisfying needs through experience.

While early models of communication tended to focus on the causal elements or the parts of the communication process (for example, the source, the message, the channel, and the receiver), later modeling efforts--based in large part in information processing theory--focused on the effects or potential effects of communication. There exist in the literature several models of this process. In the field of advertising alone, Ramond (1976) has counted sixteen variations. Two of the more popular models which show the potential effects of persuasive communication in advertising are from Colley (1961) and Lavidge and Steiner (1961). The Colley model portrays the steps of persuasion as moving from awareness, to comprehension, to conviction and then to action. Lavidge and Steiner show the process as: awareness, knowledge, liking, preference, conviction, and purchase. And, of course, one of the earliest forms of the model is the AIDA (Attention, Interest, Desire and Action) formula used by copywriters as early as the 1930's.

These models have their advantages and adherents. However, if it can be agreed that models in the social sciences perform two functions--to be both descriptive and predictive--then the hierarchy of effects models can be said to only perform modestly on these two functions. This is because these models are limited to the extent that they do not accurately describe the active interaction of the individual with the communication process and take into account the knowledge or feelings that an individual may already hold concerning the topic.

The Concept of Cognitive Responses

A body of research, developed mostly in the last ten years, has focused on the participation of the receiver in the communication process by examining the cognitive responses of individuals to persuasive messages. The cognitive response approach postulates that when people are exposed to persuasive messages, they attempt to relate the new information with their existing knowledge about the topic. In doing this, the person may generate cognitions which agree, disagree or may be irrelevant to the communication topic. If the communication supports these self-generated cognitions, then the person is more likely to agree with the position of the message. Conversely, if the communication evokes cognitive responses which either refute the new information or support a position other than

the one advocated, then the person will disagree. Thus, these cognitive responses are thought to have a mediating effect on the ultimate attitude created or changed through persuasion.

Most recent writers note that it was Greenwald (1968) who first coined the term "cognitive reponse." Greenwald, however, is quick to point out that the concept existed in the literature well before he labeled it such. Greenwald stated the problem and suggested a solution as follows:

It is widely accepted that cognitions bearing on the object of an attitude form a major component of the structure of the attitude toward that object. . . . Since the individual is not born with . . . cognitions, but acquires them, there seems to be no reasonable alternative to the assumption that cognitions bearing on attitude objects are learned. . . . Rehearsal and learning of cognitive responses to persuasion may provide a basis for explaining persisting effects of communications in terms of cognitive learning (pp. 148, 149).

Greenwald (1981), in an assessment of the findings in cognitive response research since his initial assertions, states that three areas of research consistently support the conception of cognitive responses as mediating the effect(s) of external communication. The first of these research areas uses the listed thoughts method as an aid in observing the cognitive responses during persuasion.

According to Greenwald (p. 128):

Results obtained with the listed thoughts method show that (1) the audience member's thoughts are often very rich in content that neither originates in nor agrees with the content of a just-received communication, and

(2) the evaluative content of listed thoughts serves well to predict immediate and delayed posttest opinion responses.

The second area of research uses role-playing to determine whether people attach special importance to their own thoughts relative to the thoughts of an expert on a communication topic. The third area uses distraction procedures in an attempt to interfere with the subjects' development of cognitive responses to a persuasive communication. The notion behind the distraction method is that if the development of cognitive responses can be inhibited, then the likelihood of persuasion or learning of the message is heightened if the message is one that the individual would normally respond to negatively.

In this dissertation study, the thought listing procedure is used to determine what particular cognitive responses are being developed by subjects when viewing advertisements containing implicit sex-stereotyping messages. For that reason, it is appropriate that some of the important studies concerning the listing of cognitive responses be examined at this time.

Cognitive Response Research

It should, possibly, be stated again that one of the basic tenets of the information processing approach, and hence, the cognitive response approach, to the study of communication effects is that the individual is seen as an

active participant in the communication process. Furthermore, people tend to confront persuasive attempts and critically evaluate the information. Thus, since the individual is continuously comparing new information with existing beliefs, then the potential for the new information to have an effect is mediated by its strength against the existing information.

Wright (1973) identifies three modes of cognitive responding to incoming information from advertising messages: counterarguing, source derogation, and support argument. Counterarguments are cognitive responses activated when the incoming information is compared with existing knowledge about the subject or object and a discrepancy is noted. The individual then cognitively "argues back" to the discrepant information. Source derogation, according to Wright, can be an alternative response to counterarguing. Instead of arguing against the information contained in the message, the individual denigrates the source of the message. The effect of source derogation may be as damaging to the ultimate effects of a message as counterarguing. Conversely, support arguments may provide reinforcement for the new information as the individual adds support to the new information with beliefs of his own. This would result in the individual becoming more predisposed to the contents of the persuasive message.

In an early and seminal study Wright (1973) examined

the relative weight of the three classes of cognitive responses, namely counterarguments (CA), source derogations (SD) and support arguments (SA) on two sets of attitudes (attitude toward the advertisements and attitude toward the product) and buying intent. Furthermore, he examined whether the message modality (print vs. audio) moderated the type and quantity of cognitive responding.

In this study, 160 women were randomly assigned to one of four communication conditions (two media: print and audio; two levels of processing involvement: low and high). The stimuli were advertisements for a soy-based meat substitute and contained six arguments in favor of adopting the product. Immediately after exposure to the message, the subjects were asked to list their thoughts that occurred while attending to the message and measures of message acceptance, content recall and intent to purchase the product were taken after the thought listing process.

The results of this study indicated that counterarguments play the strongest role in mediating acceptance of the message. In this study, counterarguments accounted for 32 percent of the variance in attitudes toward the advertisement, and slightly (but nonsignificantly) less when attitude toward the product and buying intent were the criteria. Additionally, Wright found that counterarguing was a stronger mediator of acceptance among those subjects exposed to the audio

version of the message than those exposed to the print version.

Wright performed multiple regression analysis on the data and came to the following conclusion (p. 59):

This analysis clearly demonstrates that as the measures of message acceptance become more divorced from the actual advertising message, counterargument engaged in spontaneously during exposure remains strongly related to attitudinal position. This is in marked contrast to the steadily weakening importance of the other two types of cognitive responses. Thus, when [attitude toward the advertisement] is the criterion, all three variables appear to be important; when [attitude toward the product] is the criterion, the weighting of source derogation is substantially decreased; and when [buying intent] is the criterion, only counterargument and support argument are weighted significantly, with the latter of relatively less importance.

In a second study based on his original (1973) data, Wright (1975) attempted to determine what personality factors might mediate the development of cognitive responses. Particularly he was concerned with General Social Confidence (GSC) and Information-processing Confidence (IPC), as well as what he called an "acute" characteristic of peer-designated opinion leadership. The notion behind this investigation was that those individuals scoring higher on these traits would be more likely than lower-scoring individuals to develop cognitive responses to messages due to their general self-confidence, their greater information-processing skills or their knowledge of the general subject area as acknowledged by their peers in designating these individuals as opinion leaders.

The data seem to indicate that counterargumentation, source derogation, and support argumentation are related in a complex way to the modality of the message and the involvement of the individual, as well as with the personality characteristics. However, a modest positive correlation was found between GSC and counterarguing and between IPC and counterarguing. Furthermore, where involvement was low, the IPC-counterarguing correlation was stronger while the GSC-counterarguing correlation was stronger in the highly involved situation. In general, acceptance of the message and confidence were found to be negatively related, as hypothesized. No relationship between GSC, IPC or PDOL and support argumentation or source derogation was found.

Holbrook (1978) attempted to go beyond the static nature of attitude structure by examining attitude components and the intervening cognitive responses. The underlying concept of this study was that the attitude components of affect and belief structure should be mediated by cognitive responses generated by the receiver of a persuasive message. Specifically, Holbrook felt that product attributes (beliefs) would be directly affected by the cognitive responses developed by the receiver.

Instead of allowing the receiver to freely generate cognitive responses through thought listing, as in previous studies, Holbrook developed a ten-item list of responses

and had the subjects rate the items on a nine-point scale. He then used these structured cognitive responses to predict product attribute beliefs and importance, as well as affect for the product. The stimuli used in this study were two different versions of persuasive copy for a fictitious automobile. One version was factual in content and one version was evaluative. In general, Holbrook found a linking pattern in which the cognitive responses mediated the belief structure, and this, in turn mediated affect for the product. In other words, he found that belief structure and affect were strengthened when cognitive responses were more positive and weakened when the reverse occurred. Furthermore, the direction of the causality is from the cognitive response toward the belief structure and then to affect. These findings tend to uphold the traditional model of attitude development as moving from cognition to affect to conation.

Belch (1981) used cognitive responses to compare differences in receiver response to comparative and noncomparative television commercials. He hypothesized that there would be no differences in the number of favorable cognitive responses developed or in attitude or purchase intent between comparative and noncomparative commercials. He further hypothesized that two-sided comparative messages would generate more favorable cognitive responses, more favorable attitudes and more

purchase intent than a one-sided comparative message, and that the positive effects would increase as exposure to the message increased. Finally, he hypothesized that a two-sided noncomparative message would generate more favorable responses, attitudes and purchase intent than a one-sided noncomparative message.

Belch followed Wright's (1973) protocol in categorizing the cognitive responses elicited in this study as either counterarguments, support arguments, source derogation or curiosity statements. He added an additional category-- "source bolstering"--as the positive counterpart to source derogation. Two dependent measures of message acceptance were used, attitudes toward using the brand advertised and purchase intentions. Additionally, measures were taken of perceived advertiser objectivity and credibility, as well as aided and unaided recall.

Contrary to Wright (1973), who found that counterarguments were the strongest predictor of message acceptance/rejection, the data in this study indicate that as more cognitive responses are included in the model, the relationship between the cognitive response mediators and the message acceptance measures is enhanced. In particular, the largest proportion of variance in message acceptance measures is accounted for by the model which includes all of the cognitive response mediators--

counterarguing, support arguing, source derogation and source bolstering. When the relationship between individual cognitive response mediators and message acceptance was examined, the weakest relationship was found between counterarguing and message acceptance. The strongest relationship was found between source bolstering (not included in Wright's study) and attitude. Belch found the same relationship between the cognitive response mediators and purchase intent. In that relationship, source bolstering was found to be the strongest and counterarguments the weakest.

When Belch examined the relationship between the cognitive response mediators and message acceptance in the comparative advertising messages, he again found that the model accounting for the most variance in message acceptance was the model which included all of the cognitive response categories. When the relationship of individual cognitive responses and message acceptance in the comparative advertising condition was examined, source derogations were shown to have the strongest relationship. In the noncomparative advertising condition, the individual cognitive response showing the strongest relationship to message acceptance was counterargument. The same relationship was maintained when the relationship being examined was cognitive responses and purchase intent, except in the noncomparative advertising condition. Here,

both counterarguments and source bolstering were about equal in the strength of the relationship to purchase intent, but neither was significant.

This study, while providing some encouragement in the use of cognitive responses in understanding the formation of attitudes as a result of persuasive communication, also demonstrates that the relationship may be more complex than originally thought. Wright's (1973) results, for example, indicate that counterarguing is the strongest of the mediating responses, but the above results indicate that none of the responses should be left out of the model, lest the model lose some of its predictive ability. And, in certain situations, it appears that source bolstering and source derogation can be stronger mediators than counterarguments.

Olson, Toy and Dover (1982) followed a similar approach in a study which sought to determine the relationship of cognitive responses to cognitive structure. These authors first discussed the traditional model of attitude formation and described it as operating in this manner:

Ad Exposure -> Beliefs -> Attitude -> Intention -> Behavior

This model describes the processing of information as operating in a linear fashion where exposure to the advertising information causes development of a belief

structure about the product, the belief structure has a direct effect on the attitude about the product, which in turn directly affects the development of an attitude toward purchasing the product (intent), and ultimately overt behavior is viewed as a function of intent.

These authors next examined a second model incorporating cognitive responses. The basic premise of this model is that cognitive responses elicited by exposure to a message mediate attitude formation or change. This model may be represented thusly:

Ad Exposure -> Cognitive Responses
-> Attitude (or Attitude Change)

The first model above is described as a cognitive structure model, and the second is described as a cognitive response model. The cognitive structure model focuses on the effects of an advertising message on beliefs and on the relationship between those beliefs and attitude or behavioral intent. This model, however, is not specific about the process through which belief structures are changed or formed as a result of the communication. Conversely, the cognitive response model focuses exclusively on the process that occurs during exposure to the advertising message and their ultimate effects on attitudes. This model does not, however, address the

relationship between cognitive responses and cognitive structure elements such as beliefs.

Olson, Toy and Dover developed a third model which combined the processual approach employed by the cognitive response model and the descriptiveness of the cognitive structure model. The combined model shows the following view of advertising effects:

Ad Exposure -> Cognitive Response -> Beliefs -> Attitude
->Intentions -> Behavior

This model may be viewed in two different ways, according to the authors. First, it may be viewed in a strictly literal fashion, meaning that all message effects on attitude would be mediated through beliefs, which are mediated by cognitive response. The second view suggests that cognitive responses may have a mediating effect on each of the elements of cognitive structure, may only partially mediate message effects on cognitive structure, or may mediate only some of the effects. Although the authors propose these views of the model, the study they present makes only a modest attempt to unravel the true causal linkages of cognitive responses to cognitive structure.

The goal of their study was to "seek to establish whether or not, and to what extent, cognitive responses

mediate the effects of an advertisement on belief, attitude, and intention elements of cognitive structure" (p. 247). Thus, these authors were primarily interested in testing the validity of the second and less conventional view of the cognitive response/cognitive structure model.

The authors chose a 5 X 2 experimental design to test the manipulation of price level information and amount of product attribute information. Ten advertisements for a ball-point pen were used in the study. Five of the advertisements showed the pen and five levels of price only; five of the advertisements showed the pen, five levels of price and product attribute information. Student subjects were used due to their availability and because of the high usage rate of ball-point pens by that group.

Each subject was asked to look at an advertisement for two minutes, and then with the ad turned face down on the table was requested to write down what he/she thought about while looking at the ad. After completing the thought listing, the subjects were told to complete a questionnaire containing the attitude and purchase intent measures.

As an aside but related to this study, Wright (1980) discussed the need for research studies using cognitive responses to measure those responses against attitudes for parallel effects. If cognitive responses are treated as dependent variables instead of mediating variables and the communication variables are treated as the independent

variables, then a step is made toward determining the causal relationship between communication variables, cognitive responses and cognitive structure. In other words, if no parallel effects are discovered, then a linkage between cognitive responses and cognitive structure cannot be assumed. Initial analysis by Olson, Toy, and Dover of their data found parallel effects consistent with Wright's concept.

Although these authors found weaker zero-order correlations than did Wright (1973), the correlations were generally significant and in the direction hypothesized. In particular, counterarguing was found to correlate negatively with all of the cognitive structure elements (attitude toward the product, attitude toward the purchase act, belief evaluations, and purchase intent). However, the correlation between counterarguing and the cognitive structure elements were significant only with belief evaluations and behavioral intent. This is somewhat contrary to Wright's (1973) findings in which the correlation between counterarguing and attitude and then behavioral intent weakened as it got further away from the message content.

Support arguments were significantly correlated with the cognitive structure elements in all of the cases. This again, is somewhat inconsistent with Wright's findings in that he found counterarguing to be the strongest cognitive

response in relation to attitudes and purchase intent. However, these results are consistent with Holbrook's study discussed above. Olson, Toy and Dover are quick to point out that their correlational evidence does not help unravel the question of the precise causal relationships between these sets of variables. However, this evidence does help further determine and define the relationships.

In general, these authors found support for their less conventional interpretation of the cognitive response/cognitive structure model. According to them, "some measure of cognitive response apparently mediated at least part of every message content effect on each cognitive structure element" (p. 257).

Edell and Staelin (1983) examined the cognitive processing of pictures in print ads. Using the thought listing protocols developed by Wright (1973), these authors analyzed the different kinds of cognitive processing that occurred after exposure to print ads containing "framed" pictures (pictures verbally connected to the message content) and "unframed" pictures (pictures not verbally connected to the message content). Additionally, measures of eye movement, aided and unaided recall, and cognitive structure elements--brand attribute beliefs, attribute evaluations, brand attitude, attitude toward the act of purchasing the brand, and purchase intent--were taken.

The results of this study indicate that when presented

with an unframed picture and characterizational copy (described as an attempt in the copy to associate the brand with a favorably evaluated object, situation or person), both counterarguments and support arguments are much less likely to be elicited than when the picture is framed and the message is objective. These results appear to be a reflection of the distracting nature of the unframed picture and the characterizational message. In these situations, the receivers are "distracted" from counterarguing in the sense that they are then forced to make the connection between the message that the picture is conveying and the copy or between the copy and the intended message of the ad.

In particular, these authors found that when the message was objective, more support arguments and fewer counterarguments were elicited from the subjects. However, when the message was subjective in nature, fewer support arguments and more counterarguments were given. The findings in this study can be summarized thusly: (1) unframed pictures elicited less cognitive responses than framed pictures; (2) subjective messages elicited more counterarguing and fewer support arguments; (3) objective messages elicited more support arguments and fewer counterarguments; (4) subjective messages resulted in less positive cognitive structure elements than objective messages; and (5) characterizational messages resulted in

cognitive structure elements weaker than those elicited by objective messages and stronger than those elicited by subjective messages.

These studies demonstrate that there is indeed a mediating relationship between cognitive responses and attitude structure. Although, it must be quickly pointed out, a complete understanding of the exact nature of this relationship has not yet been determined. In the first of these studies, for example, Wright (1973) found that counterarguing was the strongest predictor of message acceptance. On the other hand, subsequent authors found strong relationships between the individual cognitive responses of support argumentation, source derogation, and source bolstering and message acceptance, as well as in combinations of cognitive responses and attitude structure.

Additionally, there appears to be a logical relationship between the type of message presented and the type of cognitive response elicited. Messages of an objective nature with straightforward arguments and evidence seem to elicit more support arguments. Conversely, messages of a subjective nature which tend to disguise the arguments and evidence with imagery and characterization tend to elicit more counterarguing, and consequently, less positive cognitive structure elements.

The study of cognitive responses is attractive because, as indicated above, the initial evidence is very

encouraging in showing that cognitive responses can lead to a better understanding of attitude structure and formation. Second, it appears that when cognitive response information is used in combination with attitude information, the models of communication effects become much richer in their descriptive and predictive abilities. With cognitive response information added to the models, it is possible not only to discover what attitudes people hold toward an object of study, but how the attitude is formed and why. It is for these reasons, as well as the simple attraction of a researcher to a new concept, that cognitive responses play a major role in this dissertation.

Theoretical and Methodological Considerations

Wright (1980) in a review of the cognitive response literature, examined and analyzed studies of cognitive responses and raised several theoretical and methodological issues. First, he proposes four episodes of cognitive activity.

1. Message response episode--an episode in which message assertions are processed, rehearsed, stored or forgotten, and in which immediate message-evoked thoughts are generated.
2. Attitude determination episode--an episode in which a global evaluation of the advocated option is produced.
3. Preference determination episode--an episode in which a preference judgement between the advocated option and other options is produced.

4. Action planning episode--an episode in which a sequence of personal physical actions involving the advocated option is planned. (p. 152)

Wright sees these as four distinct episodes of cognitive activity separated in time. The receiver may, for example, engage in message responding activity and then store the responses developed in long-term memory to be evaluated and "mulled over" at a later time. On the other hand, the episodes may be separated by only a few seconds or overlap in time. Typically, researchers soliciting cognitive responses tend to solicit this information in a sequential fashion, separating the episodes by only a few seconds or minutes. The cognitive responses are then later classified by the type of episode they represent following an assumption of a linear process.

Wright raises two concerns about the classification practice in cognitive response research. First, typical research does not classify global attitude responses as either counterarguing or support arguing. Researchers tend to keep attitudes separate from cognitive responses. Wright asserts that naturally occurring global attitude responses should provide data both on whether or not subjects naturally initiate attitudinal deliberations, and on the postexposure attitudes of those who do. Second, the classification practice seems to reflect researchers' uncertainty that verbalized responses are complete in and of themselves. Following Wright's line of thought, it may

be that in some future studies, the traditional measure of subjects' attitudes using scales and directive questions may be abandoned in favor of cognitive responses alone. However, for the time being, most research seems to be aimed at finding the exact link between cognitive responses and attitude structure elements and rightfully should keep the conventional attitude measures in place.

The chief theoretical issue concerning cognitive response studies is the underlying assumption that verbalized reports of cognitive activity mirror the actual cognitive activities. This issue, of course, has been raised concerning attitudes themselves. The question there being: is the verbalized report of the attitude the same as the attitude itself, or simply a behavioral manifestation of the attitude and/or the situation? The same question is now being asked about cognitive responses.

Wright examines this issue by looking at several aspects of cognitive responses. First, there is the aspect of response accessibility. The central presumption behind cognitive response studies in persuasion is that if a thought can be produced in active memory faster or if thoughts can be produced in a greater quantity in a given time period, then these thoughts must be more accessible than others. Despite this assumption, very few studies have examined the role of memory in relation to cognitive responses. In Wright (1975) mentioned above, he

hypothesized that those individuals designated by their peers to be opinion leaders on a certain topic would reflect a knowledge difference and would be more able to elicit cognitive responses than those with little or no previous knowledge. Wright further suggests that the distinction between retrieved and constructed responses needs to be researched.

A second issue examined by Wright is response opportunity. Research in this area centers around two aspects of response activity--the audience's limited processing abilities and thought disruption manipulations (primarily distraction) to test for the mediating processes of cognitive responses.

In the first of these areas, there is some limited evidence that individuals are limited in the amount of information they can process at a time. An individual response capacity could be so overtaxed that the opportunity to respond could be severely diminished. According to Wright, "this effect occurs due to limits on the capacity of active memory, on one's ability to process at maximal speed for long periods, and on one's ability to ignore stimuli exceeding an intensity threshold . . . " (p. 155). In the second of these two areas, even if it is assumed that an individual can produce at a maximum level of response, a new stimulus introduced may distract the person's attention enough so that responding is diminished.

This raises questions concerning a person's prioritizing of mental tasks and their tendencies to respond. Again, Wright recommends that more research on distraction in communication be conducted before conclusions may be drawn.

A third area of theoretical concern raised by Wright is related to the prioritizing of mental tasks, but is concerned with the motivation of the individual to process the information and respond to it. Message processing goals may vary drastically from individual to individual and from situation to situation. "For example . . . a subject might try to store message assertions in LTM [long-term memory] for repetition to others, to assess the pros and cons of the advocated position, to discredit message assertions, or to idly scan the message out of curiosity" (p. 156). Wright feels that the processing goals of individuals in studies have been treated in a rather artificial and cavalier manner. Furthermore, because process is driven by end-goals, researchers should show more concern with controlling end-goals in order to more effectively tap cognitive events.

Methodological issues. Seven methodological issues surrounding cognitive response studies have been identified by Wright (1980): (1) verbalization instructions, (2) timing of the verbalizations, (3) time limits, (4) effects of other measures, (5) individual differences in verbosity, (6) coding of the verbalizations, and (7) motivation to

verbalize one's thoughts. Each of these issues is discussed below.

Verbalization instructions. In cognitive response studies instructions have been general, e.g., "list any thoughts that occur(ed) while viewing this message" or directive, e.g., "report any counterarguments (support arguments) that occur(ed) while viewing this message." While the directive instructions have the advantage of soliciting the specific kind of response of interest to the researcher, the disadvantage is that these kinds of instructions may prompt cognitive events not naturally initiated. Furthermore, the directive instructions require the subject to interpret exactly what the researcher means by "counterargument" or "support argument." The risk involved in using generalized instructions is that subjects may "edit" some things from their report that their intuition tells them are not of interest to the researcher. For that reason, some researchers have primed subjects by providing instructions which are general, yet contain examples of the types of responses of interest to the researcher. There is general agreement that general instructions obtain the fewest disadvantages, although no comparison studies have been conducted among primed and unprimed subjects.

Timing of the verbalization. Verbalizations have been obtained from subjects retrospectively or

concurrently. In concurrent situations either the message is stopped and the subject asked to write down or tell his/her responses or the subject is stopped and asked to respond. Retrospective verbalizations are taken after the subject has viewed the entire message. Each of these approaches has advantages and disadvantages. In concurrent measures, the assumption is that actual thought processes are being tapped due to the immediacy of the measure. However, incompleteness of the responses is a problem, especially under strainful processing tasks (such as processing a complicated radio or television message where the subject can't stop at will to assess the message).

Additionally, concurrent measures may interact with experimental treatments, leading to confounding effects. With retrospective measures, memory loss is a problem. There may be, for example, a tendency for the subject to understate actual responses or to respond to the last portion of the message. The decision of whether to use concurrent measures or retrospective measures is left to the researcher to determine which will more seriously affect completeness of response.

Time limits. Researchers have typically placed time limits on postmessage verbalizations in order to prevent subjects from "making up" responses. This is based on the assumption that it takes less time to retrieve earlier thoughts than it does to make them up from scratch.

Although most researchers have used a time limit of around three minutes, "the time limit should ideally reflect the duration of a subject's natural message response tendency . . ." (Wright, 1980, p. 160). Furthermore, arbitrarily short time limits may prevent the subject from retrieving thoughts that take longer to articulate.

Effects of other measures. The workload assigned the subject may affect the completeness of the verbalization task. For example, subjects may limit the number of verbalizations based on how many more questions they anticipate afterwards or on the perceived difficulty of other researcher-imposed tasks. In short, the completeness of verbalizations may be dependent on adaptations by the subject to the workload.

Individual differences in verbosity. Since most studies soliciting cognitive responses simply tabulate the number of responses from all subjects, subject difference in verbosity could bias treatment effects. However, this should not be a major factor if random assignment of subjects to treatment groups is achieved.

Coding the verbalization. After cognitive responses have been elicited in most studies, these "thoughts" are then categorized according to an operational definition of the process of interest. Usually, the reliability of the categorization is determined by inter-judge agreement rates. This necessitates the use of

judges not familiar with the goals of the study, yet expert about the coding schema, as well as the operational definitions. In studies reporting inter-judge reliability, reliabilities have ranged from very high to fairly low. However, it should be noted that in the studies reporting low inter-judge reliabilities, disagreement of coding responses concerned specific categories of responses and did not occur across responses. Thus it appears that when trained judges are used and the categories of responses are clearly defined, accurate coding can be achieved.

Motivation to verbalize one's thoughts. There is some concern that subjects may not try to report actual thoughts, but may try to make up a report in order to impress those who would examine it or that an actual thought report could threaten their self-esteem. Furthermore, because actual thought reporting could be tedious, some subjects might find it easier to simply make up a report. Wright (1980, p. 161) suggests four conditions that might make it easier for subjects to report actual thoughts instead of making up reports:

1. Self-esteem is not threatened by valid reporting.
2. The subjects do not think the verbalization will be used to judge their mental skill, by someone who controls their welfare or knows them, or used to "game" them by an advocate.
3. Subjects think the validity of their reports will be gauged, and that valid reporting will be rewarded (as by social approval).

4. Subjects think that some measure of their mental activity other than the verbalization exists, so their accuracy can be gauged.

Thus, special care must be taken to assure subjects of anonymity, and to assure them that the accuracy of their responses will be assessed through other measures.

By way of summary, Wright offers several suggestions to improve the precision of cognitive response studies. The researcher should use:

1. A general verbalization request, perhaps with a general priming
2. Concurrent verbalization for a long written message; immediate postexposure verbalization for a short message; a series of verbalizations during breaks in a long audio message
3. A fairly short time limit
4. No space limit, if thoughts are listed
5. The verbalization occurs early in a small set of measures
6. High intercoder reliability is achieved for the thought variables of concern
7. Individual differences in verbosity are controlled
8. Special efforts are made to promote candor as the dominant motive governing the verbalization (1980, p. 161).

Summary

In the study presented here, cognitive responses play a major role, as evidenced by the lengthy discussion above. To reiterate, it is felt that cognitive responses may provide a richer portrayal of what occurs as a result of

exposure to advertisements than traditional measures of attitude and purchase intent alone. For example, two women exposed to an advertisement may evaluate the ad the same on an attitudinal scale and express their intent to purchase the product similarly. These attitudes, although identical from a quantitative point of view, may be held for totally different reasons. One woman may be reacting to the message content itself, while the other woman may be reacting to the product. While it may be argued that these kinds of differences can be discerned through careful attitude scale construction, the researcher--no matter how careful--could overlook some potentially important information.

It may also be argued that an advertiser is only interested in the net results of copytesting. That is, the advertiser is only concerned with the net results of attitude toward the advertisement, the product and/or intent to purchase the product. This kind of information is useful in pretesting advertisements for a go/no-go decision, but does not provide diagnostic capabilities without resorting to complex multi-dimensional modeling and experimental designs controlling for message variables.

The potential advantages of cognitive response information, if used along with traditional attitudinal information, are several. First, it may provide evidence of how attitudes come into existence and why. Second, it

may provide critical diagnostic data to enable advertisers to "fine tune" their messages. Third, while being quantifiable, it may also provide the kind of qualitative information that was previously available only through depth interviews or focus groups. Fourth, cognitive response data are relatively easy to measure, tabulate and report. And finally, although short, the record for cognitive response studies has been remarkably good in consistently showing the validity and reliability of the concept.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND METHOD OF THE STUDY

Introduction

The general research question asked in this study is, how do women respond to advertisements directed toward them? Specifically, this study attempts to determine how women respond to advertisements that refer to them in three different manners: a traditional approach, a neutral approach, and a progressive approach. Additionally, this study attempts to determine what effect, if any, the media vehicle in which the advertisements appear has on the responses of women toward the advertisements.

As was discussed in Chapter I, while advertising has gradually moved toward a more progressive approach toward women, there is little evidence of the effectiveness of such an approach. On the other hand, there is also little evidence that a more traditional approach is any more or less effective than a progressive approach. In short, in the debate over what approach advertisers should take toward women in their target audience, there is a great deal of heat with little or no illumination. This study, then, is an attempt to provide some illumination and direction for advertisers wishing to direct their messages at today's women.

In Chapter II, a relatively new empirical method was described in which cognitive responses are elicited from subjects while these subjects are being exposed to some form of persuasive communication. Or to put it in much simpler terms, subjects are asked to describe their thoughts while attending to some message. The initial evidence from these cognitive response studies indicates that these thoughts play a mediating role in determining the ultimate attitude that audience members will hold toward the object of the persuasive message. Furthermore, the thoughts elicited from the subjects following this procedure tend to be richer in content than traditional attitude scales. And, when used along with attitude scales would seem to provide a strong diagnostic tool to be used in the evaluation of advertising messages.

Experimental Conditions

The design selected for this study was a 4 X 2 X 3 factorial design with repeated measures on the last factor. The independent variables consisted of Rena Bartos' four "New Demographic" types of women: Career-oriented and Just-a-job working women and Stay-at-home and Plan-to-work non-working women; two magazines types, traditional and progressive; and, three advertisement types, traditional, neutral and progressive. Dependent variables consisted of cognitive responses to the test advertisements, attitudes

toward the test advertisements, and intention to purchase the products being advertised.

Three products, with fictitious brandnames, were portrayed in test advertisements--a lipstick, a brassiere, and an electric hair blow-dryer. These products were selected for the following reasons: (1) they are frequently advertised in all types of women's magazines; (2) they are amenable to the three kinds of copy approaches under study here; (3) they are not frequently purchased products, so brand loyalty or habitual brand choices may be minimized; (4) they are products purchased by a wide cross-section of women; (5) each has a number of product attributes that may be discussed in copy; and, (6) there is sufficient competitive activity in each product field so that familiarity with all brands is less likely among the subjects.

Furthermore, it was felt that since these products were less frequently purchased and had a number of product attributes on which brand selection may be made, then, when presented with an advertisement for a brand with which the subjects would not be familiar, a traditional learning hierarchy would be more likely to occur.

Development of Experimental Stimuli

Three advertisements for each of the products were developed. Ads for two of the products (brassiere and

hairdryer) were in black and white, while one product ad (lipstick) included some full-color photographs. Since each of the subjects saw an ad for each of the three products, the introduction of color into one of the ads was not considered to be a confounding factor. The advertisements had all the appearances of being genuine advertisements for the products. None of the subjects detected that the ads might not be actual advertisements from magazines. Black and white reproductions of the test advertisements are shown in Appendix A.

The copy in the ads for each product was written so that the same copy points could be stressed in each of the different treatments. Indeed, except for some minor differences, the copy was essentially the same in all of the test ads for the same product. Visually, the ads for the same product were also almost identical to each other. Thus, all of the elements in the test ads for each product were held constant across the ads except for the headlines, which was where the treatment differences were introduced.

Headlines were written, pretested for their ability to represent the three treatment categories, and then revised. The revised headlines were included in the test ads after meeting the general criteria of representing the treatment categories without being obvious. The primary goal in the development of the test ads was to create realistic looking ads that would represent the three classes of advertising

in question--traditional, neutral, and progressive--without calling undue attention to themselves, or being blatantly stereotypical. A second goal was to create headlines that might potentially appeal to both working women and housewives. Thus, no direct references to employment could be made. These two goals influenced the development of the treatment headlines, which it was hoped would create natural and unexaggerated responses from the subjects. The test ad headlines selected to be used after pretesting are presented by product type below:

Elegance Lipstick

Traditional: "Irresistible Lips All Day."
Neutral: "Protect and Moisten Your Lips All Day."
Progressive: "Now, A Lip Creme That Works As Hard As You Do."

PDQ Hairdryer

Traditional: "The PDQ Blow Dryer . . . Power and speed for quick drying . . . with the gentleness a woman deserves."
Neutral: "1400 Watts of Power and Speed."
Progressive: "This ugly, little hair dryer won't slow you down."

Mademoiselle Brassiere

Traditional: "So lacy, so sexy, so feminine, so comfortable."
Neutral: "Comfortable all day."
Progressive: "All day comfort for today's active woman."

Following valid copywriting principles, each headline refers either implicitly or explicitly to the main product benefit. The reader will note that in the traditional approaches, the thrust of the headline is toward sex

appeal, traditional femininity, concern for physical beauty, or singles out women as having special needs. The neutral approaches stress the benefits of the products only. The progressive approaches generally refer to the new active lifestyle of women.

Test vehicles. After the advertisements were created, the magazines in which they were to inserted were developed. Six magazines representing the two types of magazines being studied, traditional and progressive, were selected. Good Housekeeping, Ladies' Home Journal, and Woman's Day were chosen to represent the traditional category; Ms., New Woman, and Working Woman were chosen to represent the progressive category. Excerpts from each magazine were selected to exemplify the kind of editorial material which would normally be included in an edition of the magazine. These excerpts, the test ads, and some filler ads were then placed in vinyl sleeves and placed in three-ring binders. Each sample magazine, then, had the same number of editorial pages, the same number of test ads, and the same number of filler ads. The filler ads were selected which were similar in appearance to the test ads and for non-competing products or were public service advertisements. Three test ads, one for each product and one for each treatment, were included in each magazine. Thus, each subject would be exposed to the three different treatments. The test ads were separated from each other in

the magazines by at least two pages of editorial material and/or filler ads. Table III-1 below shows how each magazine was structured with the test advertisements.

Table III-1. Experimental Magazines and Test Advertisements.

Magazine:	Advertisement Treatments		
	Product:		
	Lipstick	Hairdryer	Brassiere
<u>Ladies Home Jrnl.</u>	Trad.(1)	Neut.(2)	Prog.(3)
<u>Good Housekeeping</u>	Neut.(2)	Prog.(3)	Trad.(1)
<u>Woman's Day</u>	Prog.(3)	Trad.(1)	Neut.(2)
<u>New Woman</u>	Trad.(1)	Neut.(2)	Prog.(3)
<u>Ms.</u>	Neut.(2)	Prog.(3)	Trad.(1)
<u>Working Woman</u>	Prog.(3)	Trad.(1)	Neut.(2)

Note: The number in parentheses to the right of the treatment indicator denotes the order in which the advertisement appeared in the test magazine.

Magazines were selected as the vehicle for carrying the experimental stimuli for several reasons. First, magazines have become highly specialized in recent years and should lend themselves quite readily to segmentation strategies by advertisers. As has been mentioned here for example, the magazines represented in this study quite naturally fall into the two categories under consideration. And has also been mentioned, it is somewhat mystifying that an advertiser would run the same advertisement in a traditional magazine as would be run in a progressive

magazine. Second, the "dummy magazine" approach to copy testing has a long heritage in advertising research and is considered to be a more natural environment for copy testing than, say, the portfolio method in which advertisements are simply directly presented to subjects (Haskins, 1976, p. 198). Third, there is a body of evidence indicating that media vehicle source effects may have an effect on attitudes toward advertisements in a particular vehicle and does have an effect on readership. The latter factors are discussed in greater detail below.

Vankatesh and Tankersly (1979) compared readership of thirty-four magazines and newspapers with demographic characteristics, feminist/traditionalist self-concepts, and life-style characteristics of 333 women in the Syracuse, New York area. Their analysis uncovered eight magazines with major differences across groups determined to be Traditionalists, Moderates, and Feminists. These magazines and their ranks for each group are shown in Table III-2 below.

From the information provided by Table III-2, an argument can easily be made for categorizing magazines by the type of persons who read them. For example, since Family Circle ranked 18.0 among feminists and 5.0 among traditionalists, then it can be safely said that Family Circle is viewed as a more traditional magazine. On the other hand, since Ms. ranked 8.5 among feminists and 28.0

among traditionalists, then it can be said that Ms. is viewed as a progressive magazine.

Table III-2. Magazines with Major Differences in Readership Across Groups of Women.

Magazine:	Traditionalists:	Moderates:	Feminists:
<u>Reader's Digest</u>	3.5	3.5	13.5
<u>Good Housekeeping</u>	5.0	9.0	18.0
<u>Family Circle</u>	5.0	9.0	18.0
<u>Better Homes & Gardens</u>	7.0	7.5	16.0
<u>Time</u>	8.0	5.0	1.0
<u>Newsweek</u>	10.5	7.0	2.0
<u>McCall's</u>	12.0	12.0	18.0
<u>Ms.</u>	28.0	19.0	8.5

Note: Figures indicate rank of the magazine for the segment.

Source: Venkatesh and Tankersly (1979).

Initially, since data were provided by Vanketesh and Tankersly on the readership categories of the magazines above, it was thought that these magazines would be used in the study presented here. However, two of the magazines ranked highest by feminists are news magazines (Time and Newsweek) and one (Reader's Digest) is in a different format from the others. These factors were thought, perhaps, to introduce a confounding variable to the study. Also, in the time since the publication of the Vanketesh and Tankersly study, a couple of new magazines have been published that seem to be specifically aimed at more

progressive women. Thus, the final selection of the magazines used in this study was based in part on empirical evidence and part on logical assumption.

Development of the Measuring Instrument

The measuring instrument was built by developing some measures specifically for this study and adopting some measures used in previously published studies. It was felt that by using measures already in existence, wherever possible, the time-consuming problem of testing for validity and reliability could be avoided. (See Appendix B for the complete questionnaire.)

The first part of the questionnaire consisted of some demographic questions and some questions concerning magazine usage of the respondents. The magazine questions were included in order to maintain the disguise of the study, namely that the research was aimed at determining opinions towards magazines. Included among the demographic questions were questions designed to determine in which of the "New Demographic" categories the respondents would be included.

The second part of the questionnaire consisted of Likert type statements designed primarily to maintain the disguise of a magazine opinion study. The third part of the questionnaire contained open-ended questions designed

to measure unaided recall of the advertisements in the magazines and the thought-listing questions for each of the ads the respondents could recall.

The format and procedure for these questions were adapted from Reed (1978). In the first section of questionnaire Part III (unaided recall), subjects were asked to write down what advertisements they remembered seeing and what they were thinking about as they saw the ads.

Following the unaided recall questions were questions pertaining to each of the three test ads. In this second part (cued test ads), subjects were asked to write down what they liked most about the advertisement (support arguments), what they could think of against the advertisement (counterarguments and source derogation), what they found hard to believe (disbelief), what they agreed with in the ad (support arguments), and what they liked least in the ad (counterarguments and source derogation). The general wording of the questions and the procedure for eliciting the thought listings followed the tenets posited by Wright (1973 and 1980). These tenets were discussed more fully in Chapter II of this dissertation.

Following the thought listing procedures, each subject completed a semantic differential scale developed by Wells (1964) rating each of the test advertisements. From an

initial scale which included 26 pairs of bipolar adjectives, Wells reduced the scale to the ten pairs used in this study. This scale was developed to provide an Evaluative Quotient (EQ) which could predict recall of print advertisements.

In regression tests, the EQ scale was able to predict recall scores with a score of 94 percent. Repeated tests with many different ads and across many different subjects, likewise produced scores ranging from 75 to 92 percent. A score is derived from this scale by averaging the scores on each bipolar scale. This produces a score representing the combination of the three separate traits measured by the scale: attractiveness, meaningfulness, and vitality. These three traits in combination can be thought of as a global measure of the affective component of an attitude toward the advertisement being evaluated. Thus, this scale was selected for inclusion in this study because of its tested reliability and its ability to easily measure affect. This measure was repeated with each subject for each of the three test ads to which they were exposed.

Two measures of purchase intent were taken after the second exposure to the test ads. Actually, one of these measures is a measure of purchase intent, while the other is a measure of purchase probability. These scales were first developed and tested by Juster (1966) in measuring purchase intent and probability for household durables and

automobiles. Gruber (1970) used the same two scales in an extensive testing of their use with low-priced new product concepts.

According to Gruber, while the scales consistently produce a high correlation between the two, the purchase intent scale measures only whether or not the individual intends to purchase the product and does not effectively portray the degree or strength of the intention. The purchase probability scale, on the other hand, attaches a probability of purchasing or not to the purchase intention. For example, two individuals could indicate the same level of intention, yet attach different degrees of probability to that intention. Indeed, Gruber found the probabilities of purchasing ranging from 99 in 100, to 4 in 10 for subjects indicating they would "definitely" or "probably would" buy the product in question. Thus, while the purchase intention scale indicates a willingness or lack of willingness on the part of the subject to purchase the product in question, the purchase probability scale attaches a probability of following through with the indicated intention. Used in combination, then, the two scales could provide for a more accurate description of purchase intentions than if used alone.

In the study presented here, these last sets of measures were repeated for each of the test ads included in the test magazines, for a total of three times per

respondent. These measures were included in order to attempt to measure the conative domain of the traditional learning hierarchy. Thus, measures were taken of the affective domain in relation to the advertisements; cognitive responses which are designed to indicate whether the individual is adopting or rejecting the position being advocated by the message; and the conative dimension to indicate the subjects' willingness to act in the direction being advocated by the message.

Procedure

Subjects were solicited from various work groups, church groups, and neighborhood groups. As subjects arrived at the testing site (which varied from church basements to kitchen tables in private homes), they were grouped around a table with as much space between subjects as could be afforded. As many as six subjects could be tested at a time, although tests were conducted with as few as one or two subjects in some instances.

Subjects were told when initially contacted and at the beginning of the testing that the study was aimed at measuring their opinions toward women's magazines. This disguise was felt to be necessary to avoid any sensitization of the subjects toward the real topic. The directions for reading the test magazines as well as a general description of the study were read to the subjects

and they were then asked to complete the demographic section of the questionnaire and sign an informed consent form.

Upon completion of the consent form and the demographic questions, the questionnaires were coded by the interviewer as to the subjects' "New Demographic" types and they were handed a magazine based on which "New Demographic" category in which they were coded to be. This insured that each category of subjects would see all the test magazines, and thus, all the test advertisements. Subjects were told to spend as much time as they liked with the magazine and to signal the interviewer when completed. When signaled, the interviewer would then close the magazine and hand questionnaire Part II to the subjects and go over the instructions with them. Questionnaire Part II contained the "throw-away" questions concerning magazine readership and attitudes. When the subjects had completed Part II, they were then told to read the instructions to Part III and continue if they had no questions about the procedure. When the subjects had completed this, the unaided recall, portion of the questionnaire, the interviewer then opened the magazine to the first test ad and had them continue with the next sets of questions. The test ads were shown to the subjects in random order so that possible subject fatigue toward the end of the interviewing process would be controlled for. The process was repeated

for each of the test advertisements until the subjects had responded to all three. Each completed interview lasted approximately one hour. The subjects were then debriefed as to the real intent of the study and were told they were free to leave if they had no questions. Table III-3, below, shows the design of the study.

Initial analysis of Table III-3 would seem to indicate a relatively small number of subjects in each cell. And, while this may be true on the surface, it bears repeating that each subject was exposed to three different treatments and three complete sets of dependent measures were taken from each exposure. Thus, in a sense, each subject acted as "three" subjects and provided the data for three analyses. Additionally, during statistical analysis the cells for each magazine were combined into two cells, representing the two magazine types--traditional and progressive--further serving to increase the number of subject observations in each cell to nine.

Sample size determination. The sample size was determined by convention, as well as what was considered manageable. For example, due to the complexity of design, an increase of just one subject per cell would have meant an increase of 24 in the total sample. Since time and cost factors were crucial in determining the number of subjects to be included, a sample of 72 was determined to be reasonable.

TABLE III-3. Design of Study Showing Number of Observations in Each Cell

	Traditional Magazines									Progressive Magazines								
	GH			LHJ			WD			MS.			WW			NW		
	BT	LN	HP	LT	HN	BP	HT	BN	LP	BT	LN	HP	LT	HN	BP	HT	BN	LP
CO	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
JAJ	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
PTW	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
SAH	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3

Schema:

Traditional Magazines:

GH = Good Housekeeping
LHJ = Ladies Home Journal
WD = Woman's Day

Progressive Magazines:

MS = Ms. Magazine
WW = Working Woman
NW = New Woman

Advertisements: B = Brassiere Ad, L = Lipstick Ad, H = Hairdryer Ad
T = Traditional Approach, N = Neutral Approach, P = Progressive Approach

Subjects: CO = Career Oriented Working Women, JAJ = Just-A-Job Working Women,
PTW = Plan-to Work Non-working Women, SAH = Stay-at-Home Non-Working Women.

Finally, the analysis of variance (ANOVA) statistical procedure was to be used in the final data analysis. And, although ANOVA allows for analysis of unequal cell sizes, it was felt that by keeping the cell sizes equal, analysis and understanding of the findings would be made simpler. Moreover, several researchers (Winer, 1962; Leckenby, 1978; Barker and Barker, 1984), have indicated that analysis of variance procedures can be used with as few as three subjects per cell. Thus, in this study, the sample of 72 subjects resulted in cells for analysis with nine observations in each cell. Further discussion of the statistical analyses of the data and the results of these analyses are presented in the next chapter.

Data collection. The study was conducted in Lincoln, Nebraska, a city of approximately 180,000. Data were collected from paid and non-paid volunteer subjects over a six-month period from September 1983 through February of 1984. Subjects were drawn from neighborhood groups, church groups and work groups, as well as individuals.

A total of 96 completed interviews were obtained. It was found to be necessary to collect more interviews from some of the "new demographic" groups in order to collect the number needed from the Stay-at-Home non-employed women. This resulted in twice as many subjects in the

Career-Oriented category as in the Stay-at-Home category, and three more subjects in each of the remaining categories over the required 18 needed. Since equal cell sizes were desired for data analysis, 18 cases were randomly selected to be excluded from the Career-Oriented category, and three each were excluded from the Just-a-Job and Plan-to-Work categories. This resulted in a total of 72 subjects, with 18 subjects in each of the four New Demographic categories, included in the analysis.

Data Coding and Analysis

After all the data had been collected, they were then coded for computer tabulation. Most of the data coding was fairly straightforward and requires no explanation. However, perhaps some discussion is necessary concerning the coding of the cognitive responses.

Cognitive responses, being essentially qualitative data, require special treatment in coding in order to be useful. Cognitive responses were measured at two times during the experiment. First, they were measured during the unaided recall portion of the measurement procedure as simple thought listings of what the subject remembered thinking about while she had been looking at the recalled advertisement (Wright, 1973). Another set of cognitive responses (one set for each of the three test advertisements) was measured during the portion of the

study when the subject was re-exposed to the test advertisements. These second thought listings, however, were elicited with more structured measurements than in the unaided section. Questions were asked about what the subject liked most about the advertisement, what she liked least, what she agreed with most, what she found hard to believe, and what she could think of against what was said in the advertisement (Reed, 1978). Thus, the first set of cognitive responses could be called unstructured responses, while the second set could be called structured responses.

Both the unstructured and structured cognitive responses were coded following the procedure developed by Wright (1973). Each unstructured response was coded as either a counterargument, a support argument, a source derogation or none, using the coding protocols presented in Appendix C, which were developed by Wright. The structured responses were handled differently. While the primary coding schemes were followed as to whether the response was considered to be a counterargument, support argument, or the like, the responses were additionally coded as to whether the argument was for or against the sex-role portrayal, the picture, the headline and other elements of the advertisement.

Initially it was intended that this coding procedure would provide the ability to precisely detect the source of counterargumentation or support argumentation from within

the advertisements. However, since the sample size was relatively small, the number of response categories were relatively numerous, and the subjects were responding to both the test and the filler ads at this point, it was decided not to consider the unstructured responses in the final data analysis. Furthermore, for many of the same reasons, it was decided to collapse the structured cognitive response categories into a smaller number of categories so that data handling and statistical analysis could be made easier. This recoding of the variables is discussed more fully in Chapter IV. The complete coding scheme used in preparing all of the variables for computer analysis is presented in Appendix D.

After all the data had been coded, a computer file was created to hold the data for subsequent analysis. Computer analyses were conducted using procedures from Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), Version 7.9 (Nie, et al., 1975) (Hull and Nie, 1981). Three-way Analysis of Variance with repeated measures was conducted using procedures from the BMDP Statistical Software (BMDP) (Dixon, 1983) computer package. The results of these analyses are presented in Chapter IV.

Summary

This chapter presents a design for a study which attempted to measure the combined interaction of

traditional, neutral, and progressive advertisements appearing in traditional and progressive magazines and how these interactions affect the evaluations of these advertisements and the products contained in them among four distinct groups of women. The resulting design was of necessity complex and included several measures of advertising effects. However, every effort was made during the development of the study to simplify for parsimonious reasons, as well as to attempt to reduce or eliminate subject fatigue. Observations made during the conduct of the study indicated that subject fatigue, if a factor at all, was only an insignificant factor and did not adversely affect the amount or quality of the subjects' involvement in the study.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS OF THE EXPERIMENT

This chapter presents the results of the experiment described in Chapter III. The goal of this experiment was to determine the main and interactive effects of four types of occupational status, two types of magazines and three types of advertising messages, on women's cognitive responses, attitudes toward the advertisements, and their purchase intentions toward the products being advertised.

Independent variables. The procedure used was a forced exposure, post-test only, 4 X 2 X 3 factorial design with repeated measures on the last factor. The first factor was Employment Status, represented by Bartos' (1983) four "New Demographic" categories, namely, Just-a-Job (JAJ) and Career-Oriented (CO) working women and Stay-at-Home (SAH) and Plan-to-Work (PTW) non-employed women. The second factor consisted of two types of magazines selected as the media vehicles in the experiment and defined as traditional and progressive magazines. The third (and repeated) factor was three types of advertisements, varied in their headlines and operationally defined as traditional, neutral and progressive approaches.

Nine advertisements, representing the three treatment approaches and three different products (3 X 3) were

imbedded in six different test magazines (three magazines operationally defined as having traditional orientations and three defined as having progressive orientations), which represented the two categories of magazines being studied. The products were chosen because it was felt that they would appeal to a cross-section of women, as well as for other reasons mentioned in Chapter III. Three advertisements, one from each of the types being studied, were imbedded in the six test magazines. Thus, each magazine carried a Traditional ad, a Neutral ad, and a Progressive ad. Since each subject saw all of the Advertisement Type treatments and responded to measures concerning these treatments, then this constituted a repeated measure. These three sets of factors--Employment Status, Magazine Type and Advertisement Type--represented the independent variables in the experimental design.

Dependent variables. Three major categories of dependent variables were considered. The first was concerned with cognitive responses and included counterarguments, support arguments and source derogations. The second was concerned with attitudes toward the advertisement, measured with a semantic differential scale. And, the third was concerned with the behavioral or purchase intentions toward the product, measured with a purchase intention and a purchase probability scale. These three groups of dependent variables were chosen because

they represent the three major domains of attitude, namely cognitive, affective, and conative. As mentioned in Chapter III, a goal of this study was to go beyond previous studies which measured only selected domains of attitudes, if at all.

Subject Demographics

The subjects in this study represented a range of demographic characteristics. Table IV-1, below, shows the number of respondents and the percentage of responses for the three major demographic categories.

The ages of the subjects ranged from 18 through 65, with the majority being in the 25 to 44 year-old range. Furthermore, most of the subjects were married (83.3%). Educationally, the subjects tended to be more highly educated than the general population. For instance, while all of the subjects had at least completed high school, over one-third had completed college (37.5%), and 11.1% had obtained graduate degrees. One-fourth (26.4%) of the subjects had obtained some college, with no degree.

Since one of the major independent variables in this study was the employment status of the subjects, as defined by Bartos' four categories of "New Demographics," the demographics of the subjects broken down by these four categories were examined.

Table IV-1. Subject Demographic Characteristics (N = 72).

Demographic Characteristic	Number of Respondents	Percent of Respondents
<u>Marital Status:</u>		
Single	6	8.3
Married	60	83.3
Separated	2	2.8
Divorced	4	5.6
Widowed	0	0.0
<u>Age:</u>		
18 - 24	8	11.1
25 - 34	27	37.5
35 - 44	22	30.6
45 - 54	7	9.7
55 - 64	6	8.3
Over 65	1	1.4
No Response	1	1.4
<u>Education:</u>		
Comp. High School	15	20.8
Some College	19	26.4
Comp. Jr. College	3	4.2
Completed College	27	37.5
Graduate Degree	8	11.1

Table IV-2, below, shows the breakdown of demographics by employment status. It can be seen that the Stay-at-Home non-employed women appear to be slightly older than the other groups. One surprising datum is the number of Plan-to-Work women who hold graduate degrees. Chi-square analyses of these categories showed no significant differences among them (although it should be noted that the convention of having no fewer than three observations

per cell was violated in several cells). However, it appears that the subjects were fairly homogeneous along the traditional demographic categories--the only difference being in their employment status which, of course, was a pre-determined condition for being included in the study.

Table IV-2. Subject Demographics by Employment Status.

	Just-a-Job	Employment Status:		
		Career Oriented	Stay- at-Home	Plan- to-Work
Marital Status:	Freq. (%)	Freq. (%)	Freq. (%)	Freq. (%)
Single:	4 (5.6)	1 (1.4)	0 (0.0)	1 (1.4)
Married:	13 (18.1)	14 (19.4)	17 (23.6)	16 (22.2)
Separated:	1 (1.4)	1 (1.4)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Divorced:	0 (0.0)	2 (2.8)	1 (1.4)	1 (1.4)
Age:				
18 - 24:	2 (2.8)	2 (2.8)	1 (1.4)	3 (4.2)
25 - 34:	7 (9.7)	7 (9.7)	7 (9.7)	6 (8.3)
35 - 44:	5 (6.9)	7 (9.7)	3 (4.2)	7 (9.7)
45 - 54:	3 (4.2)	2 (2.8)	2 (2.8)	0 (0.0)
55 - 64:	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	4 (5.6)	2 (2.8)
65 AND UP:	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (1.4)	0 (0.0)
Education:				
H.S. Only:	4 (5.6)	5 (6.9)	4 (5.6)	2 (2.8)
Some Col:	7 (9.7)	2 (2.8)	4 (5.6)	6 (8.3)
Jr. Col:	2 (2.8)	0 (0.0)	1 (1.4)	0 (0.0)
4-yr. Col:	4 (5.6)	8 (11.1)	8 (11.1)	7 (9.7)
Grad. Deg:	1 (1.4)	3 (4.2)	1 (1.4)	3 (4.2)

Another point should be made at this time concerning the "New Demographics" used in this study. Several of the subjects expressed dissatisfaction with responding to two of the employment categories, namely Career-Oriented and

Just-a-Job. The dissatisfaction occurred because they said that although their current job was "just a job," they felt they were career-oriented in that they wished to keep on working and had no desire to stay home. These subjects were told by the interviewer to mark the category which they felt best described their attitude toward work. Additionally, a few of the subjects were employed part-time. These subjects indicated that they liked having the best of both worlds; they preferred staying at home, but they also liked working. Again, they were told to mark the category that best described their attitude toward working outside the home. Thus, although these categories seemed discrete on the surface, within the categories there is apparently still some room for differences in attitudes toward working outside the home. These differences should be examined in future studies employing these employment categories.

Advertisement Recall

When asked which advertisements they remembered after exposure, a small percentage of the subjects (4.2%) reported recalling none of the ads (both filler and test ads--eight ads total), nearly three-fourths of the subjects could remember as many as three advertisements, and one subject recalled six of the advertisements to which she was exposed. The average number of test and filler ads recalled by the subjects was 2.38.

The number of test advertisements recalled was also measured in the study. Nine of the subjects (12.5%) could recall none of the test advertisements, twenty-eight of the subjects (38.9%) could recall one, twenty-five (34.7%) recalled two, and ten (12.9%) recalled all three of the test advertisements. Table IV-3 shows the frequencies and the percentages of recall for each particular advertisement in the study.

Table IV-3. Test Advertisements Recalled by Subjects.

Product/Ad Treatment	1st Ad Recalled Freq. (%)	2nd Ad Recalled Freq. (%)	3rd Ad Recalled Freq. (%)
Brassiere/Traditional	16 (22.2)	3 (4.2)	1 (1.4)
Hairdryer/Traditional	8 (11.1)	1 (1.4)	1 (1.4)
Lipstick/Traditional	8 (11.1)	2 (2.8)	3 (4.2)
Brassiere/Neutral	5 (6.9)	6 (8.3)	3 (4.2)
Hairdryer/Neutral	2 (2.8)	1 (1.4)	3 (4.2)
Lipstick/Neutral	2 (2.8)	7 (9.7)	1 (1.4)
Brassiere/Progressive	5 (6.9)	2 (2.8)	1 (1.4)
Hairdryer/Progressive	2 (2.8)	6 (8.3)	1 (1.4)
Lipstick/Progressive	3 (4.2)	2 (2.8)	3 (4.2)
Filler Advertisements	18 (25.0)	21 (29.2)	15 (20.8)
No Ad Recall	3 (4.2)	21 (29.2)	40 (55.6)
Total	72 (100.0)	72 (100.0)	72 (100.0)
Total Traditional Ads	32 (44.4)	6 (8.3)	5 (6.9)
Total Neutral Ads	9 (12.5)	14 (19.4)	7 (9.7)
Total Progressive Ads	10 (13.8)	10 (13.8)	5 (6.9)

As can be seen from the data in Table IV-3, it appears that a primacy effect may be occurring in as much as the

Traditional advertisements gained a higher recall in general than did the other types of advertisements. In all of the test magazines, the Traditional advertisements appeared as the first ad and before any editorial material.

However, another plausible reason for the higher recall rate of the traditional advertisements may be that these ads were more irritating than the others, and thus, were more intrusive. This intrusiveness (if it was, indeed, occurring), could lead to higher recall rates for the Traditional advertisements. It can also be noted that across products the brassiere advertisements tended to be recalled more often than the other product ads--although the lipstick advertisements showed a respectable recall level. These products could be considered more personally involving than a hairdryer, and therefore, could stimulate more personal connections, leading to higher recall. Finally, it can be noted that all of the test advertisements produced about the same level of recall as the filler advertisements. This would tend to indicate that, as hoped, the test advertisements were no more or less noticed than the fillers, and thus were not perceived to be different.

The recall figures presented in Table IV-3 represent the recall of the test ads by the entire sample. However, since the recall of the test ads may be due to the order of the appearance of the advertisements in the test magazines,

or some other factor, test ad recall was not included in any further analysis as a dependent measure. Furthermore, it can be said that advertisement recall is a fairly low-order effect that has been the subject of controversy of whether or not it may predict higher-order effects such as attitude or product purchase intentions (c.f. Haskins, 1964; Ramond, 1974; Ray, 1973).

Analysis of Variance Findings

Recoding of variables. Prior to analyzing the dependent variables, some were recoded to facilitate the use of analysis of variance (ANOVA) statistical procedures. Originally, each subject's first and second comments to the questions from the structured thought listing procedure were coded separately and categorized according to specific content in the advertisements. However, this produced data at only the nominal level, and in far too many response categories to make analysis meaningful. So, for that reason, the responses in these categories were collapsed and recoded to produce data at the interval level or better, and to reduce the number of cells for analysis.

In the recoding scheme, the first and second comments were summed for the responses to the question of what the subject "liked most" and "agreed with" about the test advertisements to produce a variable called Positive

Remarks. Likewise the responses, originally measured as "liked least" and "hard to believe" about the advertisements were recoded and summed to produce a variable called Negative Remarks. The original measure of counterarguments asked what the subject "disagreed with" about the ad. This was initially coded in categories like the measures above, but also included a measure of an evaluation of the strength of the comments. In recoding counterarguments, the comments were summed along with the measure of the strength of the comments to produce a new variable called Counterarguments. The remaining three dependent variables--attitude toward the advertisement, purchase intent, and purchase probability-- were not recoded as they were already above the nominal level and could be used as they were. Table IV-4, below lists the dependent variables used in the analysis of the data generated in this study and summarizes the recoding procedure.

Additionally, two original categories of independent variables were likewise collapsed. The original six magazines to which the subjects were exposed, were combined into just two categories--Traditional magazines and Progressive magazines. And, the nine original advertisements, representing the three products and the three treatments, were combined into just the three categories of advertisements, namely, Traditional, Neutral,

and Progressive, since the products themselves were not of particular interest in this study.

It is to be remembered that the measures of the dependent variables took place three times for each subject, once for each of the three test advertisements. In other words, each subject produced six response measures for each of the three advertisements to which she was exposed--a total of 18 measures of effects per subject.

Table IV-4. Summary of Variable Recoding Procedure.

Original Measure	<u>Recoded</u>	Dependent Variable
Liked Most + Agreed With	=	Positive Remarks
Liked Least + Hard to Believe	=	Negative Remarks
Disagreed With + Strength	=	Counterarguments
<u>Not Recoded</u>		
		Attitude
		Purchase Intention
		Purchase Probability

Research Hypotheses

Since this study is exploratory and the results could contain a number of complex interactions between the independent and dependent variables, no a priori hypotheses were formed. However, a set of null hypotheses, stating essentially that all of the cell means obtained are

statistically equal, were stated for each of the dependent variables.

Findings of Effects

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) procedures were conducted to measure for main and interactive effects of the independent variables with the dependent variables. Three-way ANOVA, with repeated measures procedure was performed on each of the dependent variables. ANOVA was selected as the statistical procedure used because the procedure is essentially identical to performing separate T-tests on each of the cell means, but operates much more efficiently (Champion, 1970; Hays, 1973). ANOVA (or F test) tests for the null hypothesis that there are no differences between sample means. Specifically, the procedure analyzes variation between sample dependent variable means as well as the variation within independent variable groups. The design is similar to a repeated measures design described by Winer (1962, p. 319-345). Each cell contained nine observations from three subjects, since each subject saw all three types of advertisements. Responses to the dependent measures were taken for each advertisement, forming the repeated measures.

Positive Remarks Scores

The first dependent variable to be analyzed was the recoded variable called Positive Remarks. This variable could be

said to represent a measure of support argumentation, although the coding procedure conforms to Wright's protocol, the recoding procedure used in developing this variable for ANOVA does not conform for measuring support arguments. Instead, it is probably best if this variable is merely considered an indicator of the subjects' affect toward the advertisements in addition to Attitude toward the advertisements, which will be discussed later.

The variable, Positive Remarks, was measured for each of the three advertisement types--traditional, neutral, and progressive. Table IV-5, shows the mean scores (with standard deviations in parentheses) and marginals for Positive Remarks by Employment Status and Magazine Type. Simple inspection of the contents of this table shows the means ranging from low of 0.89 for the Neutral Ads seen by the Career-Oriented employed women in the Traditional magazines, to a high of 2.33 for the Neutral advertisements seen by the Just-a-Job employed women in the Progressive magazines.

Inspection of these means indicates that the Traditional advertisements tended to gain slightly higher Positive Remarks than the Neutral ads, which scored slightly higher than the Progressive ads. There also seems to be an indication that the advertisements seen in the Progressive magazines score higher than the advertisements seen in the Traditional magazines.

Table IV-5. Positive Remarks Mean Scores and Standard Deviations by Employment Status, Magazine Type and Advertisement Type.

Employment Status w/ Magazine Type:	Positive Remarks			
	Trad. Ad	Neut. Ad	Prog. Ad	Marginal
Just-a-Job/ Trad. Magazine	1.56 (.527)	2.00 (1.00)	1.67 (.500)	1.74
Just-a-Job/ Prog. Magazine	1.89 (1.27)	2.33 (1.00)	1.44 (.726)	1.89
Career-Oriented/ Trad. Magazine	1.78 (.833)	0.89 (.781)	1.44 (1.01)	1.37
Career-Oriented/ Prog. Magazine	1.11 (.928)	2.11 (.782)	2.00 (.866)	1.74
Stay-at-Home/ Trad. Magazine	1.78 (.440)	1.11 (.781)	1.56 (.527)	1.48
Stay-at-Home/ Prog. Magazine	1.89 (.600)	1.78 (.667)	1.56 (.527)	1.74
Plan-to-Work/ Trad. Magazine	1.67 (.866)	1.44 (.726)	1.44 (.726)	1.52
Plan-to-Work/ Prog. Magazine	2.00 (1.00)	1.78 (.667)	1.89 (.600)	1.89
Marginals	1.71	1.68	1.63	1.67

Note: Standard deviations in parentheses.

Inspection, however does not indicate whether or not these variations between the means are significant. An F test was used to determine if there was nonchance variation in any of the means of the Positive Remarks scores.

Specifically, the null hypotheses that all of the cell means were statistically equal were tested by analysis of variance.

Positive Remarks Null Hypotheses

- HoPR1: The cell means for Positive Remarks by the four categories of Employment Status are equal.
- HoPR2: The cell means for Positive Remarks by the two categories of Magazine Type are equal.
- HoPR3: The cell means for Positive Remarks by the three categories of Advertisement Type are equal.
- HoPR4: The cell means for Positive Remarks by Employment Status by Magazine Type are equal.
- HoPR5: The cell means for Positive Remarks by Advertisement Type by Employment Status are equal.
- HoPR6: The cell means for Positive Remarks by Advertisement Type by Magazine Type are equal.
- HoPR7: The cell means for Positive Remarks by Advertisement Type by Magazine Type by Employment Status are equal.

Table IV-6 presents a summary of the analysis of variance for Positive Remarks during exposure to the experimental treatments. The significant F statistic for Magazine Type indicates that the null hypothesis (HoPR2) that there are no differences between the two types of magazines in the number of Positive Remarks made about all of the advertisements can be rejected. Specifically, it can be said that the Progressive magazines produced significantly higher Positive Remarks scores (mean = 1.82)

than the scores from the Traditional magazines (mean = 1.53).

Table IV-6. Summary Table for Analysis of Variance of Mean Scores for Positive Remarks By Employment Status, Magazine Type and Advertisement Type.

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	<u>df</u>	Mean Square	<u>F</u>
<u>Between Groups:</u>				
Employment Status	2.08796	3	0.69599	0.92
Magazine Type	4.44907	1	4.44907	5.85*
Employment X Magazine	0.45833	3	0.15278	0.20
Error	48.66667	64	0.76042	
<u>Within Groups:</u>				
Advertisement Type	0.25926	2	0.12963	0.23
Advertisement X Employment Status	6.03704	6	1.00617	1.81
Advertisement X Magazine Type	3.59259	2	1.79630	3.22*
Advertisement X Magazine X Employment	6.77778	6	1.12963	2.03
Error	71.33333	128		

*Significant at .05.

Furthermore, the significant F statistic for Advertisement by Magazine indicates significant differences in the number of Positive Remarks within the groups defined by these two treatments. Thus, it can be said that Magazine Type is interacting with Advertisement Type to produce significant differences in response, and the null hypothesis (HoPR6) can be rejected. Employment Status did not produce significant differences either as a main effect

or interactive effect. And, there were no significant three-way interaction effects of Advertisement Type by Magazine Type by Employment Status. Null hypotheses HoPR1, HoPR3, HoPR4, HoPR5, and HoPR7 cannot be rejected.

A Newman-Keuls procedure was conducted to determine which of the means for Advertisement Type by Magazine Type were significantly different from each other ($p \leq .05$). This procedure is an a posteriori test of significance which compares the difference of each cell mean against all possible comparisons of differences between means. The procedure is used when significant main or interactive effects are found via analysis of variance. For Positive Remarks only the combined means for Advertisement Type by Magazine Type were used in the Newman-Keuls procedure, since only these two factors produced significant interaction effects. Table IV-7 shows the means for Advertisement Type by Magazine Type.

Table IV-7. Positive Remarks Mean Scores by Magazine Type and Advertisement Type.

Advertisement:	Magazine Types	
	Traditional	Progressive
Traditional	1.69	1.72
Neutral	1.36	2.00
Progressive	1.53	1.72

Table IV-8, below, shows the rank ordered means for Advertisement Type by Magazine Type upon which the Newman-Keuls procedure was conducted, and the significant differences between the pairs of means. The vertical lines to the right of the means indicates the relationship between the means. All of the means not significantly different from each other are connected by a common line.

Table IV-8. Rank Ordered Positive Remarks Mean Scores by Magazine Type, Showing Significant Differences.

Neutral Ad	/	Progressive Magazine	2.00	
Traditional Ad	/	Progressive Magazine	1.72	
Progressive Ad	/	Progressive Magazine	1.72	
Traditional Ad	/	Traditional Magazine	1.69	
Progressive Ad	/	Traditional Magazine	1.53	
Neutral Ad	/	Traditional Magazine	1.36	

The Newman-Keul procedure showed that Progressive magazines produced significantly higher Positive Remarks scores than did the Traditional magazines for all of the test ads, except for the Traditional advertisements. The mean scores between the Traditional advertisements in the Progressive magazines and the Traditional advertisements in the Traditional Magazines were not found to be significantly different. However, the Neutral advertisements produced significantly higher Positive Remarks in the Progressive magazines than in the Traditional magazines.

The same is true of the Progressive advertisements. Here again, the Progressive advertisements in the Progressive magazines produced significantly higher scores than the Progressive advertisements in the Traditional magazines. Figure IV-1 shows the profiles of the means for Advertisement Type by Magazine Type where Positive Remarks is the dependent variable.

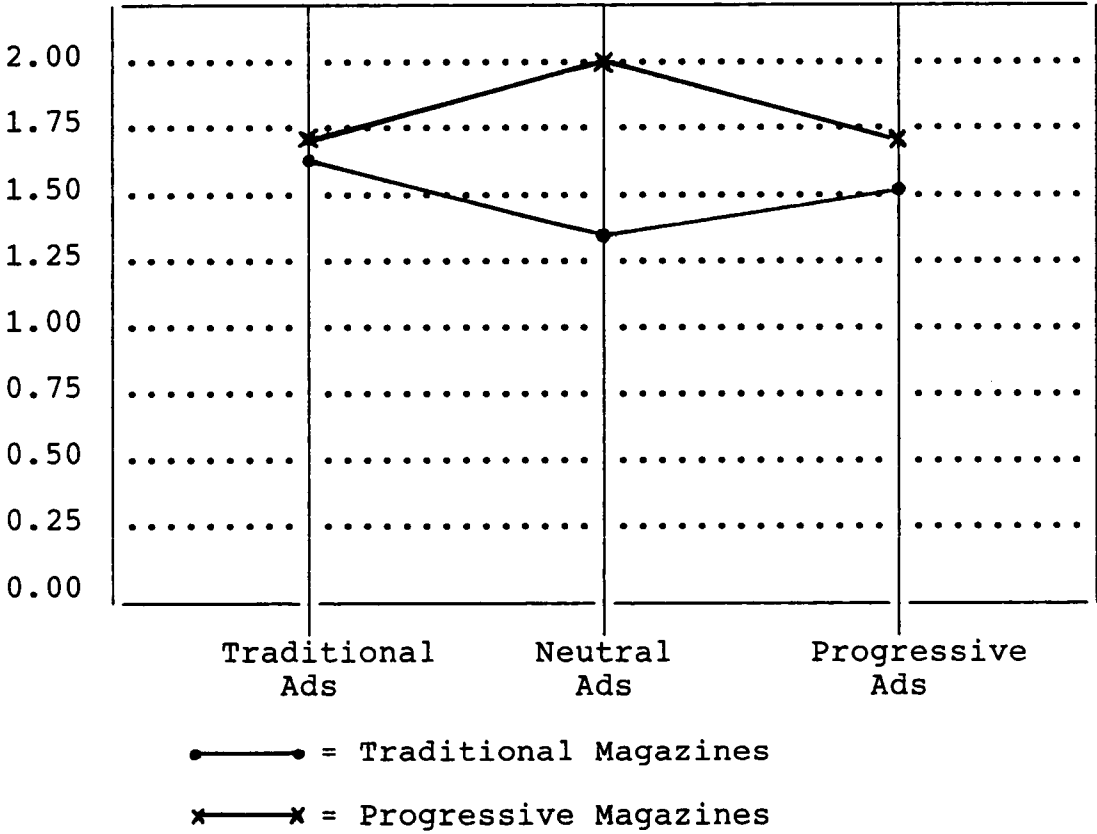


Figure IV-1. Positive Remarks Mean Score Profiles by Magazine Type and Advertisement Type.

In this case, the means for Traditional ads in Progressive magazine, Progressive ads in Progressive

magazine, and Traditional ads in Traditional magazines are significantly different from the Neutral ads in the Progressive magazines and the Progressive ads in the Traditional magazines, but not significantly different from each other. Furthermore, the Neutral ad in the Traditional magazines is significantly different from the Progressive ads in the Traditional magazines.

An examination of the above profile shows graphically that all three advertisement types in the Progressive magazines obtained higher Positive Remarks scores than their counterparts in the Traditional magazines. Indeed, the greatest difference between means is the difference between the means for the Neutral advertisements. Additionally, the Progressive advertisements in the Progressive magazines produced significantly higher scores than the Progressive advertisements in the Traditional magazines. Progressive advertisements in the Traditional magazines produced significantly higher Positive Remarks than the Traditional advertisements in Traditional magazines. The lowest score of all the combinations was for the Neutral advertisements in the Traditional magazines. Finally, the Neutral advertisements in the Progressive magazines produced significantly higher Positive Remarks than all of the other advertisement and magazine combinations.

Negative Remarks Scores

The next dependent variable to be considered is Negative Remarks, a recoding of the original variables designed to measure disbelief and disaffect. As recoded, the variable still retains its usefulness as an indicator of disaffection toward the advertisements in the study. The number of Negative Remarks an advertisement elicits from the subjects provides a second measure of the relative effectiveness of the three advertisement treatments combined with the two magazine treatments.

While Negative Remarks may be simply considered the opposite of Positive Remarks, or the end of a continuum on which Positive Remarks is the other end, in actual practice this is not necessarily the case. Being on opposite ends of a continuum implies that the resulting measure would be placed somewhere along that continuum in one direction or the other. In this study, the subjects could provide both Positive Remarks and Negative Remarks about the same advertisements. In other words, for a particular ad, there may be some things that the respondent likes about the ad and provides Positive Remarks about, and there may be some things about that which the subject does not like and provides Negative Remarks about. Thus, Positive and Negative Remarks should not be viewed as points along a continuum, but as separate measures not completely

independent of each other. Table IV-9 shows the cell means and standard deviations (in parentheses) for Negative Remarks by Employment Status by Magazine Type and by Advertisement Type.

Table IV-9. Negative Remarks Mean Scores and Standard Deviations by Employment Status, Magazine Type and Advertisement Type.

Employment Status w/ Magazine Type:	Negative Remarks			
	Trad. Ad	Neut. Ad	Prog. Ad	Marginal
Just-a-Job/ Trad. Magazine	1.89 (.782)	1.00 (.707)	1.00 (.866)	1.30
Just-a-Job/ Prog. Magazine	2.00 (1.23)	1.56 (1.01)	1.33 (1.12)	1.63
Career-Oriented/ Trad. Magazine	1.56 (1.01)	1.33 (1.12)	1.33 (.866)	1.41
Career-Oriented/ Prog. Magazine	1.78 (1.09)	1.11 (1.67)	1.22 (.972)	1.37
Stay-at-Home/ Trad. Magazine	1.22 (.667)	1.56 (.726)	1.11 (.600)	1.30
Stay-at-Home/ Prog. Magazine	1.44 (1.01)	1.11 (.928)	1.11 (.782)	1.22
Plan-to-Work/ Trad. Magazine	0.89 (.928)	1.00 (1.00)	0.78 (.441)	0.89
Plan-to-Work/ Prog. Magazine	1.44 (1.01)	1.00 (.866)	1.11 (.782)	1.19
Marginals	1.53	1.21	1.13	1.29

Note: Standard deviations in parentheses.

Inspection of these cell means shows a low of 0.78 mean Negative Remarks score for the Progressive advertisements in the Traditional magazine rated by the Plan-to-Work women, to a high mean score of 2.00 for the Traditional advertisements in the Progressive magazines rated by the Just-a-Job women.

Again, an F test was performed to test whether the variations between the high and low means and other variations between the cell means were nonchance. Specifically, a set of null hypotheses stating that the cell means are statistically equal were tested by analysis of variance. These null hypotheses are listed below. Table IV-10, below, shows the analysis of variance summary table for these data.

Negative Remarks Null Hypotheses

- HoNR1: The cell means for Negative Remarks by the four categories of Employment Status are equal.
- HoNR2: The cell means for Negative Remarks by the two categories of Magazine Type are equal.
- HoNR3: The cell means for Negative Remarks by the three categories of Advertisement Type are equal.
- HoNR4: The cell means for Negative Remarks by Employment Status by Magazine Type are equal.
- HoNR5: The cell means for Negative Remarks by Advertisement Type by Employment Status are equal.
- HoNR6: The cell means for Negative Remarks by Advertisement Type by Magazine Type are equal.

HoNR7: The cell means for Negative Remarks by Advertisement Type by Magazine Type by Employment Status are equal.

Table IV-10. Summary Table for Analysis of Variance of Mean Scores for Negative Remarks By Employment Status, Magazine Type and Advertisement Type.

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	<u>df</u>	Mean Square	<u>F</u>
<u>Between Groups:</u>				
Employment Status	5.64815	3	1.88272	2.09
Magazine Type	0.90741	1	0.90741	1.01
Employment X Magazine	1.87037	3	0.62346	0.69
Error	57.77778	64	0.90278	
<u>Within Groups:</u>				
Advertisement Type	6.50926	2	3.25463	3.94*
Advertisement X Employment Status	3.04630	6	0.50772	0.61
Advertisement X Magazine Type	0.84259	2	0.42130	0.51
Advertisement X Magazine X Employment	1.82407	6	0.30401	0.37
Error	105.77778	128	0.82639	

*Significant at .05.

The significant F statistic from the ANOVA summary table indicates a significant main effect of Advertisement Type on Negative Remarks. No significant main effects by Employment Status or Magazine Type were found, and no two-way or three-way interactive effects were found. It appears, then, that the subjects, regardless of Employment

Status, reacted to the three advertisements differently, no matter in which magazine type they appeared.

Since only the Advertisement Type produced significant main effects, the Newman-Keuls procedure was conducted on the cell means for this particular combination of means and no others ($p \leq .05$). These means are presented in rank order in Table IV-11. As before, the lines to the right of the scores connect the means which are not significantly different from each other. In this case, it is easy to see that the means for Neutral and Progressive advertisements are not significantly different from each other. However, it can also be seen that the mean for the Traditional advertisements is significantly higher than the other two. Thus, the null hypothesis (H_{0NR3}) can be rejected that the cell means for Advertisement Type are equal. All other null hypotheses for Negative Remarks cannot be rejected.

Figure IV-2 shows the profile of the Negative Remarks means by Advertisement Type. This profile indicates that all of the groups of women produced significantly higher Negative Remarks for the Traditional advertisements than they did for the Neutral and Progressive advertisements. Indeed, the Neutral and Progressive advertisements are considered to be statistically equal.

It appears then, that at least as far as the number of Negative Remarks produced is concerned, the type of

advertisement strongly influences consideration of the advertisements, regardless of membership in particular employment status groups and regardless of the magazine type in which the ads appeared.

Table IV-11. Rank Ordered Negative Remarks Mean Scores by Advertisement Type, Showing Significant Differences.

Advertisement Type	Mean
Progressive Advertisements	1.13
Neutral Advertisements	1.21
Traditional Advertisements	1.53

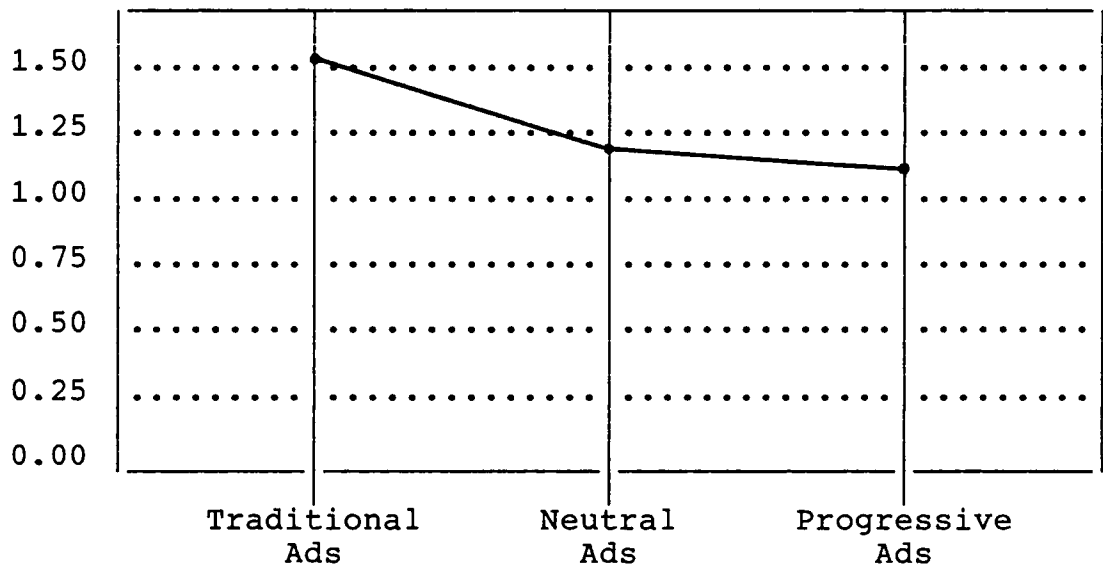


Figure IV-2. Negative Remarks Mean Score Profiles by Advertisement Type.

Counterargument Mean Scores

The third dependent variable to be examined in this study is Counterarguments. Like Positive Remarks and Negative Remarks, this too was recoded after the original data coding to produce a variable at the interval level or better. The recoding procedure was to simply sum the number of counterarguments made about the advertisements and to add to these sums a measure of the strength of the counterarguments. Thus, each subject's Counterargument score could range from zero, meaning no counterargumentation took place, to a high of ten. A subject could score an advertisement the maximum of ten only if she made two counterarguments which were both rated as very strong ($1 + 1 + 4 + 4 = 10$). None of the subjects scored an ad the maximum of ten, however.

The number of counterarguments a subject makes about a message is evidenced to be an indicator of the acceptance or rejection of the message. The more counterarguments produced, the more likely it is that the message is rejected by the receiver.

Table IV-12 shows the cell means for Counterarguments by Employment Status, Magazine Type and Advertisement Type. Even a cursory examination of the table below indicates a wide variation in responses. The lowest number of Counterarguments (0.56) came from the Career-Oriented women for the Neutral advertisements in the Progressive

magazines. On the other hand, the highest amount of Counterarguments (5.78) came from the Just-a-Job women for the Traditional advertisements in the Traditional magazines.

Table IV-12. Counterarguments Mean Scores and Standard Deviations by Employment Status, Magazine Type and Advertisement Type.

Employment Status w/ Magazine Type:	Counterarguments			
	Trad. Ad	Neut. Ad	Prog. Ad	Marginal
Just-a-Job/ Trad. Magazine	5.78 (2.49)	3.11 (1.96)	1.00 (1.50)	3.27
Just-a-Job/ Prog. Magazine	5.22 (3.38)	3.44 (2.78)	3.89 (2.57)	4.19
Career-Oriented/ Trad. Magazine	5.11 (3.18)	3.44 (2.96)	3.56 (1.01)	4.04
Career-Oriented/ Prog. Magazine	5.22 (3.03)	0.56 (1.13)	2.56 (2.00)	2.78
Stay-at-Home/ Trad. Magazine	2.11 (1.36)	1.89 (1.61)	2.11 (1.61)	2.04
Stay-at-Home/ Prog. Magazine	1.89 (1.83)	2.11 (1.61)	2.11 (1.61)	2.04
Plan-to-Work/ Trad. Magazine	4.00 (2.74)	2.11 (3.01)	2.33 (2.00)	2.81
Plan-to-Work/ Prog. Magazine	4.00 (3.20)	3.33 (3.32)	1.33 (1.58)	2.89
Marginals	4.17	2.50	2.36	3.01

Note: Standard deviations in parentheses.

As before, an F test was performed to test the null hypotheses that the variations between the groups of means are not significantly different. The null hypotheses for Counterarguments are presented below.

Counterargument Null Hypotheses

- HoCA1: The cell means for Counterarguments by the four categories of Employment Status are equal.
- HoCA2: The cell means for Counterarguments by the two categories of Magazine Type are equal.
- HoCA3: The cell means for Counterarguments by the three categories of Advertisement Type are equal.
- HoCA4: The cell means for Counterarguments by Employment Status by Magazine Type are equal.
- HoCA5: The cell means for Counterarguments by Advertisement Type by Employment Status are equal.
- HoCA6: The cell means for Counterarguments by Advertisement Type by Magazine Type are equal.
- HoCA7: The cell means for Counterarguments by Advertisement Type by Magazine Type by Employment Status are equal.

Table IV-13 presents the ANOVA summary. As can be seen, main effects were found to be significant for Employment Status and for Advertisement type. Significant two-way interaction effects were found for Advertisement Type by Employment Status. Three-way interaction effects were significant for Counterarguments by Advertisement Type by Magazine Type by Employment Status.

Table IV-13. Summary Table for Analysis of Variance of Mean Scores for Counterarguments By Employment Status, Magazine Type and Advertisement Type.

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	<u>df</u>	Mean Square	<u>F</u>
<u>Between Groups:</u>				
Employment Status	89.83333	3	29.94444	3.54*
Magazine Type	0.29630	1	0.29630	0.04
Employment X Magazine	31.85185	3	10.61728	1.26
Error	57.77778	64	0.90278	
<u>Within Groups:</u>				
Advertisement Type	145.37037	2	72.68519	17.91***
Advertisement X Employment Status	80.88889	6	13.48148	3.32***
Advertisement X Magazine Type	2.48148	2	1.24074	0.31
Advertisement X Magazine X Employment	58.59259	6	9.76543	2.41*
Error	519.33333	128	4.05729	

*Significant at .05.

**Significant at .01.

***Significant at .001.

The significant F statistics indicated above mean that null hypotheses HoCA1, HoCA3, HoCA5 and HoCA7 can be rejected. Null hypotheses HoCA2, HoCA4 and HoCA6 cannot be rejected. Furthermore, the fact that the main effect for Advertisement Type is significant ($p \leq .001$) and that Advertisement Type by Employment Status is also significant would indicate that as with Negative Remarks, the type of

advertisement seems to be dominating responses to the advertisements, and that these responses are also a function of the employment category in which the subjects are grouped. Finally, although no significant main effects or two-way interactive effects were found for Magazine Type, this factor does appear to be interacting with Advertisement Type and Employment Status to produce variations in Counterargument responses.

The fact that two and three-way interactive effects were found to be significant for Counterarguments makes understanding these interactions difficult. For that reason, Newman-Keuls procedures were conducted first for the cell means in the three-way interaction, next the two-way interaction, and then finally for the main effects of Advertisement Type and Employment Status separately. Table IV-14 shows the rank orders of the means for Counterarguments by Advertisement Type by Magazine Type by Employment Status.

After examining Table IV-14, it is obvious that the means at the very ends of the range are significantly different from the means at the other ends, and the means toward the center of the range. Beyond that, however, interpretation becomes fairly confusing. Several findings may be pointed out, though, simply due to their obviousness. For example, the Career-Oriented women, exposed to the Progressive magazines, counterargued against

the Neutral advertisement significantly less than any other group of women with any of the other magazine/advertisement combinations. It is also fairly obvious that the Stay-at-Home women counterargued all of the magazine and advertisement combinations at the same low level. None of the means from the Stay-at-Home women are significantly different from each other.

Table IV-14. Rank Ordered Counterargument Mean Scores by Employment Status, Magazine Type and Advertisement Type, Showing Significant Differences.

Employment Status	Magazine	Advertisement	Mean
Career-Oriented	Progressive	Neutral	0.56
Just-a-Job	Traditional	Progressive	1.00
Plan-to-Work	Progressive	Progressive	1.33
Stay-at-Home	Traditional	Neutral	1.89
Stay-at-Home	Progressive	Traditional	1.89
Stay-at-Home	Traditional	Traditional	2.11
Stay-at-Home	Traditional	Progressive	2.11
Stay-at-Home	Progressive	Neutral	2.11
Stay-at-Home	Progressive	Progressive	2.11
Plan-to-Work	Traditional	Neutral	2.11
Plan-to-Work	Traditional	Progressive	2.33
Career-Oriented	Progressive	Progressive	2.56
Just-a-Job	Traditional	Neutral	3.11
Plan-to-Work	Progressive	Neutral	3.33
Just-a-Job	Progressive	Neutral	3.44
Career-Oriented	Traditional	Neutral	3.44
Career-Oriented	Traditional	Progressive	3.56
Just-a-Job	Progressive	Progressive	3.89
Plan-to-Work	Traditional	Traditional	4.00
Plan-to-Work	Progressive	Traditional	4.00
Career-Oriented	Traditional	Traditional	5.11
Just-a-Job	Progressive	Traditional	5.22
Career-Oriented	Progressive	Traditional	5.22
Just-a-Job	Traditional	Traditional	5.78

It can also be noted from the table above that four of the six Traditional advertisements, combined with magazines, are clustered at the highest end of the range of mean scores; indicating that the Traditional advertisements were counterargued against much more than the other advertising types.

Figure IV-3 profiles the three-way interaction of Employment Status by Magazine Type by Advertisement Type. Examination of this profile shows the extreme variations in response from the two different types of magazines. The only group that did not alter its pattern from one magazine type to the other was the Stay-at-Home women. On the other hand, the pattern for the three advertisements from the Career-Oriented women in the Traditional magazine is almost identical to the Just-a-Job women in the Progressive magazines. Although, it should be pointed out that both of these groups reacted negatively to Traditional ads in either magazines.

Other than the obvious differences just discussed, any other interpretations of these complicated interactions may be too complex to easily grasp. Instead, an examination of the significant two-way interactions between Advertisement Type and Employment on Counterarguments might lead to an understanding of what precisely was occurring among these variations in cell means more quickly.

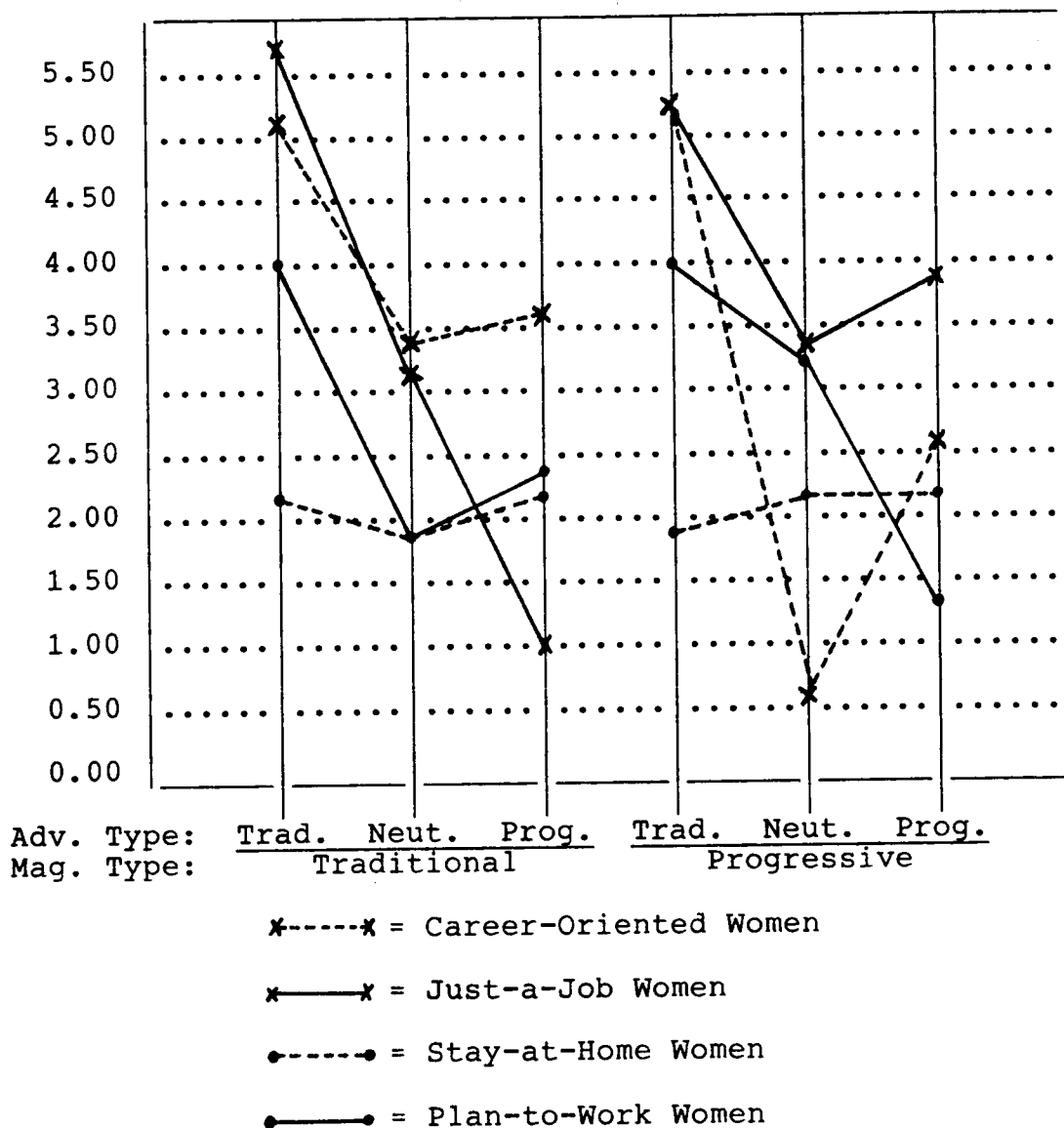


Figure IV-3. Counterargument Mean Score Profiles by Employment Status, Magazine Type, and Advertisement Type.

Counterargument two-way interaction. As with the three-way interaction, a Newman-Keuls procedure was conducted on the means of the two-way interaction of Advertisement Type by Employment Status. Below, Table

IV-15 shows the cell means used in the Newman-Keuls procedure. From that table alone, it can be seen that the means for the Traditional advertisements are generally higher than for either the Neutral or Progressive advertisements.

Table IV-15. Counterargument Mean Scores by Employment Status and Advertisement Type.

Employment Status	Advertisement Type		
	Traditional	Neutral	Progressive
Career-Oriented	5.17	2.00	3.05
Just-a-Job	5.50	3.27	2.44
Stay-at-Home	2.00	2.00	2.11
Plan-to-Work	4.00	2.72	1.83

Table IV-16 shows the rank-ordered cell means with significant differences. From this table the pattern emerges a little more clearly. It can be seen table that the two highest mean scores (5.17 and 5.50) are not significantly different from each other, but are significantly higher than the third highest mean score (4.00). That mean is also significantly higher than the next highest mean (3.27). That shows that the Traditional ads, in all but one case, produced significantly higher Counterarguments than any of the other advertisements.

It can also be seen that the mean scores for Traditional advertisements from the Career-Oriented women

and the Just-a-Job women are not significantly different from each other, but these two means are significantly higher than the mean scores for the Traditional advertisements from the Stay-at-Home and Plan-to-Work women.

Table IV-16. Rank Ordered Counterargument Mean Scores by Employment Status and Advertisement Type, Showing Significant Differences.

Employment Status	Advertisement Type	Mean
Plan-to-Work	/ Progressive Ad	1.83
Stay-at-Home	/ Neutral Ad	2.00
Stay-at-Home	/ Traditional Ad	2.00
Career-Oriented	/ Neutral Ad	2.00
Stay-at-Home	/ Progressive Ad	2.11
Just-a-Job	/ Progressive Ad	2.44
Plan-to-Work	/ Neutral Ad	2.72
Career-Oriented	/ Progressive Ad	3.05
Just-a-Job	/ Neutral Ad	3.27
Plan-to-Work	/ Traditional Ad	4.00
Career-Oriented	/ Traditional Ad	5.17
Just-a-Job	/ Traditional Ad	5.50

The relationships just discussed and others can be seen more clearly in Figure IV-4. This figure, shown below, profiles the two-way interaction of Advertisement Type by Employment Status for Counterarguments. It can be seen in this profile that the Traditional advertisements were counterargued by the Just-a-Job, Career-Oriented, and Plan-to-Work groups significantly more than by the

Stay-at-Home group. The Just-a-Job women and the Plan-to-Work women counterargue the Neutral ads less than the Traditional ads, and the Progressive ads less than the Neutral ads.

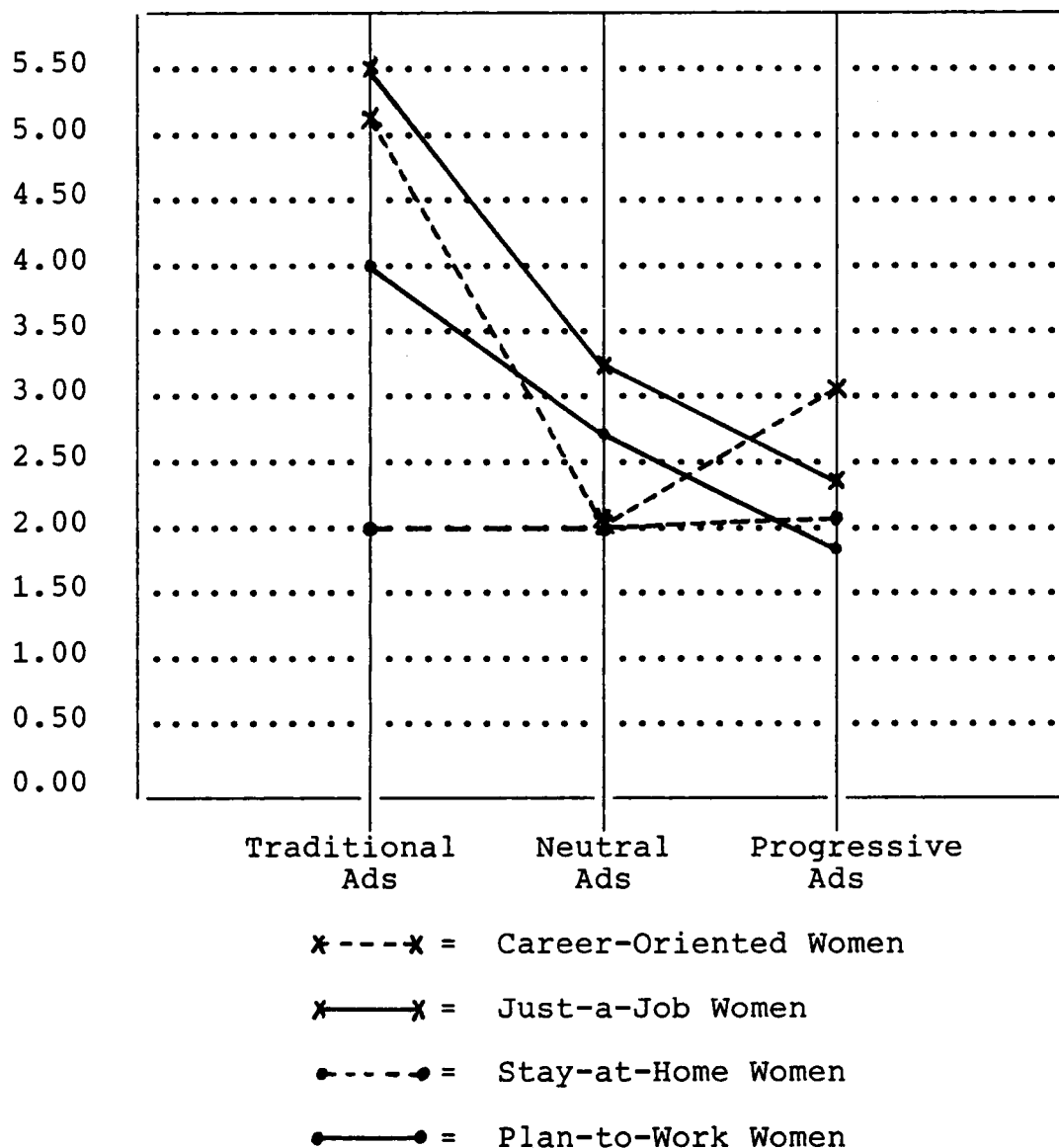


Figure IV-4. Counterargument Mean Score Profiles by Employment Status and Advertisement Type.

Additionally, the Career-Oriented women counterargue the Neutral ads less than both the Traditional ads and the Progressive ads. Finally, it can also be seen that the lowest number of counterarguments came from the Plan-to-Work women toward the Progressive ad, and the highest number of counterarguments came from the Just-a-Job women toward the Traditional ad.

Counterargument main effects by Employment Status. The pattern emerges even more clearly when the cell means for the main effects of Employment Status on Counterarguments are examined. Table IV-17 shows the cell means for Counterargument scores by Employment Status. Again, a Newman-Keuls procedure was conducted between these cell means ($p \leq .05$). Table IV-18 shows the rank-ordered cell means and significant differences.

Table IV-17. Counterargument Mean Scores by Employment Status.

Employment Status	Mean
Career-Oriented Women	3.74
Just-a-Job Women	3.41
Stay-at-Home Women	2.04
Plan-to-Work Women	2.85

Table IV-18. Rank Ordered Counterargument Mean Scores by Employment Status, Showing Significant Differences.

Employment Status	Mean
Stay-at-Home Women	2.04
Plan-to-Work Women	2.85
Just-a-Job Women	3.41
Career-Oriented Women	3.74

As can be seen from Table IV-18, the Stay-at-Home women counterargued all of the ads significantly less than the Plan-to-Work women, who produced significantly less counterarguments than the Just-a-Job and Career-Oriented women. There were no significant differences in the amount of counterargumentation between the Just-a-Job and Career-Oriented women. Thus, it can be said that, on average, the two categories of women employed outside the home tend to be more critical of all advertisements than the women who are employed inside the home. The cell means for Counterarguments by Employment Status are profiled below in Figure IV-5.

Counterargument main effects by Advertisement Type.

The final significant main effect on Counterarguments to be discussed is Advertisement Type. As indicated earlier, this main effect was found to be significant at the .001 level. The Newman-Keuls procedure was conducted on these

cell means just as above. Table IV-19 shows the rank-ordered cell means for Counterarguments by Advertisement Type. The Newman-Keuls procedure found that the mean scores for the Traditional advertisements are significantly higher than the means for the Neutral and Progressive advertisements ($p \leq .05$). The Neutral and Progressive advertisements were not found to be significantly different from each other.

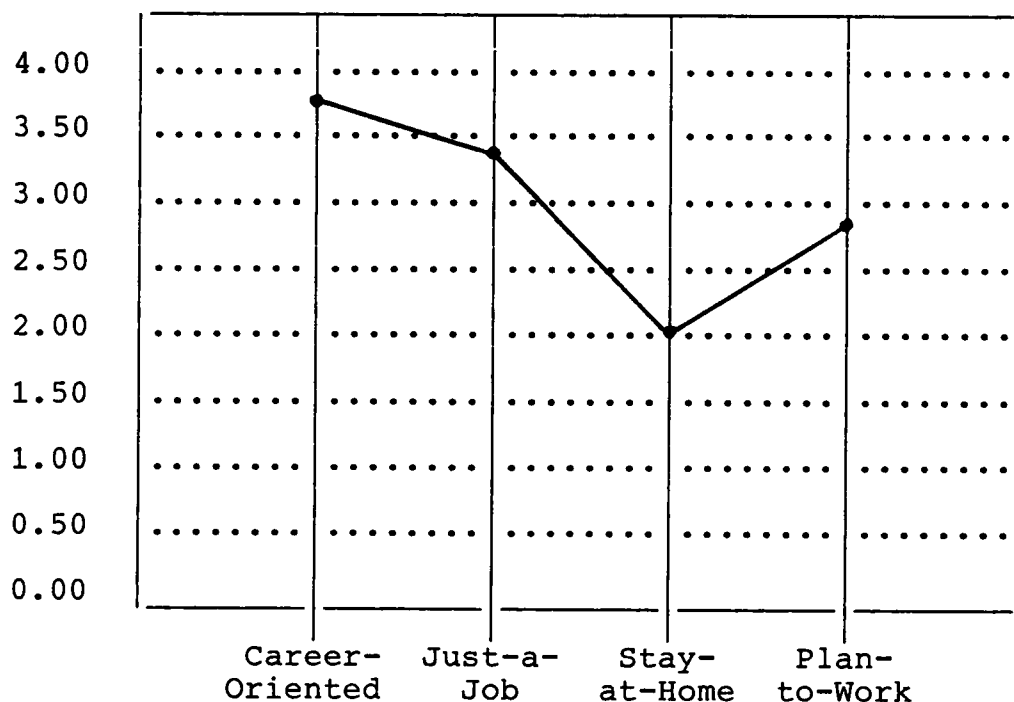


Figure IV-5. Counterargument Mean Score Profiles by Employment Status.

From these tables and figures, it can be concluded, then, that across all groups of women and within either type of magazine, the Traditional advertisements were

counterargued against more than either the Neutral or Progressive advertisements. Figure IV-6 shows the profiles of Counterargument scores by Advertisement Type.

Table IV-19. Rank Ordered Counterargument Mean Scores by Advertisement Type, Showing Significant Differences.

Advertisement Type	Mean
Progressive	2.36
Neutral	2.50
Traditional	4.17

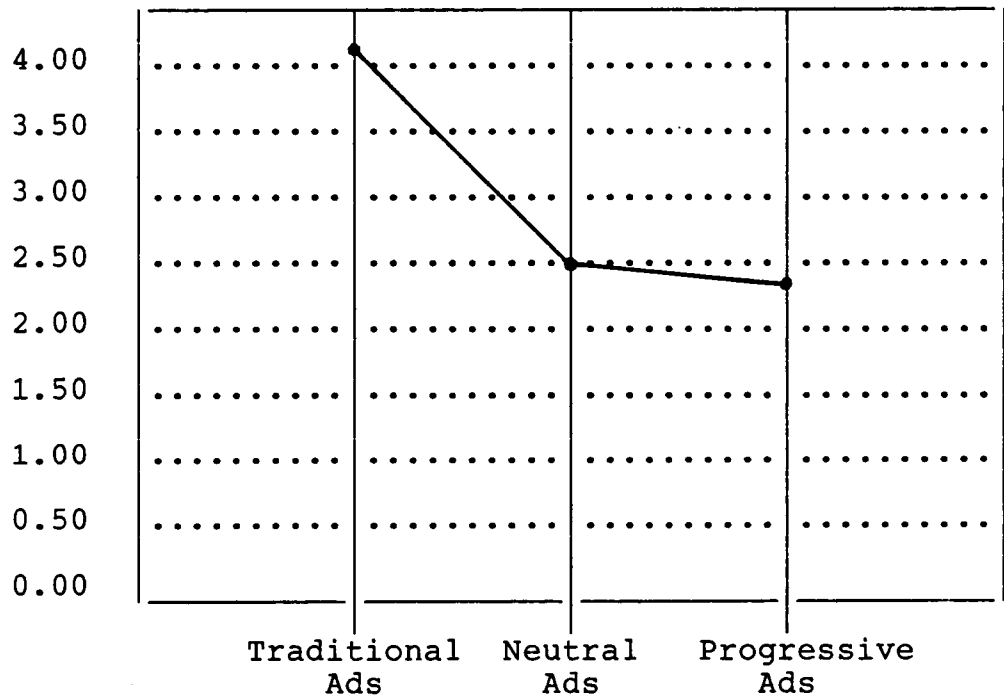


Figure IV-6. Counterargument Mean Score Profiles by Advertisement Type.

Attitudes Toward the Advertisements

The fourth dependent variable to be analyzed in this study is Attitude Toward the Advertisements (Attitude). Attitude responses toward the test advertisements were taken from each of the subjects after re-exposure to each of the test advertisements. Thus, each subject supplied three attitude scores, one for the Traditional advertisement she saw, and one each for the Neutral and Progressive advertisements.

Attitudes were measured using an eight-point semantic differential scale designed to provide a global measure of the affective component of an attitude toward the advertisement being evaluated (Wells, 1964). It is used in this study for the same reasons, as well as for providing an additional measure of the relative effectiveness of the three types of advertisements being tested in combination with the two types of magazines. Attitude (affect) may also provide an indicator of whether or not the advertising message is being accepted by the subjects, and thus, whether or not the message is successful. For instance, a low attitude score would indicate that the advertisement was rejected by the subjects, while a higher attitude score would indicate acceptance. Table IV-20 shows the cell means and standard deviations (in parentheses) for Attitude by Employment Status, Magazine Type and Advertisement Type.

Table IV-20. Attitude Mean Scores and Standard Deviations by Employment Status, Magazine Type and Advertisement Type.

Employment Status w/ Magazine Type:	Attitude Means			
	Trad. Ad	Neut. Ad	Prog. Ad	Marginal
Just-a-Job/ Trad. Magazine	4.00 (.954)	5.04 (.936)	5.16 (.955)	4.73
Just-a-Job/ Prog. Magazine	3.49 (1.35)	4.28 (1.23)	3.71 (1.06)	3.83
Career-Oriented/ Trad. Magazine	3.86 (1.47)	3.87 (1.14)	4.12 (1.27)	3.95
Career-Oriented/ Prog. Magazine	2.90 (.854)	4.63 (.625)	4.26 (1.28)	3.93
Stay-at-Home/ Trad. Magazine	4.52 (1.38)	4.34 (1.75)	5.34 (.820)	4.66
Stay-at-Home/ Prog. Magazine	4.78 (1.61)	4.34 (1.39)	5.34 (1.21)	4.82
Plan-to-Work/ Trad. Magazine	4.23 (1.84)	5.19 (1.08)	4.72 (1.64)	4.72
Plan-to-Work/ Prog. Magazine	4.23 (.994)	4.34 (.802)	5.01 (1.33)	4.53
Marginals	4.00	4.54	4.64	4.39

Note: Standard deviations in parentheses.

As can be seen from the above table, the overall mean for all of the advertisements, and across all of the subjects is 4.39. This would seem to indicate only a mild positive attitude from all of the subjects toward all of

the ads. However, extremely high attitude scores would not be expected, since advertisements in general are not considered too important by the average person. Besides, it is the relative effectiveness of the three types of advertisements of interest in this study. The means shown in Table IV-20 also indicate a range of means from a low of 2.90 for the Traditional advertisements in the Progressive magazines as rated by the Career-Oriented women, to a high of 5.34 for the Progressive advertisements in both types of magazines as rated by the Stay-at-Home women. As before, analysis of variance was performed on the three-way combination of independent variables for Attitude to test the null hypotheses listed below. The summary table for this ANOVA procedure is presented in Table IV-21.

Attitude Null Hypotheses

- HoAT1: The means for Attitude toward the advertisements from the four categories of Employment Status are equal.
- HoAT2: The means for Attitude toward the advertisements within the two categories of Magazine Type are equal.
- HoAT3: The means for Attitude toward the advertisements are equal for each of the three Advertisement Types.
- HoAT4: The means for Attitude toward the advertisements by Employment Status by Magazine Type are equal.
- HoAT5: The means for Attitude toward the advertisements by Employment Status by Advertisement Type are equal.
- HoAT6: The means for Attitude toward the advertisements by Magazine Type by Advertisement Type are equal.

HoAT7: The means for Attitude toward the advertisements by Employment Status by Magazine Type by Advertisement Type are equal.

Table IV-21. Summary Table for Analysis of Variance of Mean Scores for Attitude By Employment Status, Magazine Type and Advertisement Type.

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	<u>df</u>	Mean Square	<u>F</u>
<u>Between Groups:</u>				
Employment Status	21.12681	3	7.04227	3.38*
Magazine Type	3.01042	1	3.01042	1.45
Employment X Magazine	8.94792	3	2.98264	1.43
Error	133.31259	64	2.08301	
<u>Within Groups:</u>				
Advertisement Type	17.12565	2	8.56282	6.64**
Advertisement X Employment Status	7.35695	6	1.22616	0.95
Advertisement X Magazine Type	0.32250	2	0.16125	0.13
Advertisement X Magazine X Employment	13.13639	6	2.18940	1.70
Error	165.10519	128	1.28988	

*Significant at .05.

**Significant at .01.

The F test for Attitude indicates significant main effects for Employment Status at the .05 level or less, and main effects for Advertisement Type at the .01 level or less. Therefore, the null hypotheses, HoAT1 and HoAT3 can be rejected. No other null hypotheses for this variable can be rejected.

As before, when significant main or interactive

effects are found through analysis of variance, then it is appropriate to perform a Newman-Keuls procedure to discover precisely where the variance between the means for these effects is occurring. Table IV-22 shows the rank-ordered cell means for Attitude by Employment Status upon which the Newman-Keuls procedure ($P \leq .05$) was conducted. The vertical lines to the right of the rank-ordered means indicate significant differences. Means connected by the vertical lines are not significantly different from each other.

Table IV-22. Rank Ordered Attitude Mean Scores by Employment Status, Showing Significant Differences.

Employment Status	Mean
Stay-at-Home Women	4.74
Plan-to-Work Women	4.62
Just-a-Job Women	4.28
Career-Oriented Women	3.94

As can be seen from the table above, the Stay-at-Home women produced significantly higher Attitude scores than the Just-a-Job and Career-Oriented women. Furthermore, no significant differences were found between the Career-Oriented and the Just-a-Job women, between the Just-a-Job and Plan-to-Work women, or between the Plan-to-Work and the Stay-at-Home women. It is evident that the Stay-at-Home

women tend to be more positive toward all of the advertisements than both categories of women who are employed outside the home. The Plan-to-Work women seem to be positioned attitudinally between the Stay-at-Home women on one hand, and women who are employed outside the home on the other. Figure IV-7, shows the profiles of Attitude scores by Employment Status.

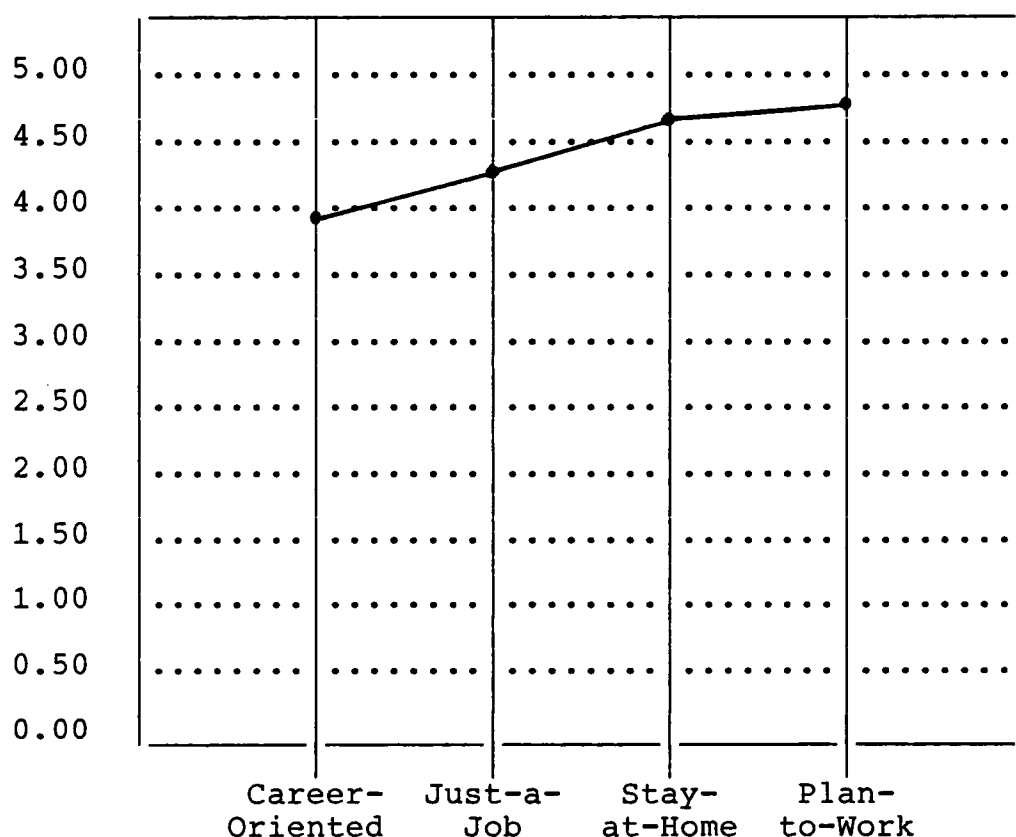


Figure IV-7. Attitude Mean Score Profiles by Employment Status.

What is most noteworthy about the findings, as evidenced in the table and figure above, is that they

exactly parallel the pattern for Counterarguments discussed previously, indicating consistency between the separate dependent variable measures (See Table IV-18).

A Newman-Keuls procedure was conducted on the other main effect variable found significant through analysis of variance of Attitude means, namely, Advertisement Type. Table IV-23, shows the rank-ordered means for Attitude by Advertisement Type, and the profiles are shown in Figure IV-8.

Table IV-23. Rank Ordered Attitude Mean Scores by Advertisement Type, Showing Significant Differences.

Advertisement Type	Mean
Traditional Advertisements	4.00
Neutral Advertisements	4.54
Progressive Advertisements	4.64

The most noteworthy finding again, is that the Traditional advertisements received significantly lower Attitude scores than the Neutral and Progressive advertisements. This pattern is consistent with the pattern that was found for the variable Negative Remarks. In that particular case, the Traditional advertisements produced significantly higher Negative Remarks, while the Neutral and Progressive advertisements were not

significantly different. In the case of Attitudes, the Traditional advertisements produced significantly lower Attitude scores, while the Neutral and Progressive advertisements were not significantly different. Thus, these findings might be interpreted to mean that the separate dependent variable measures are verifying each other.

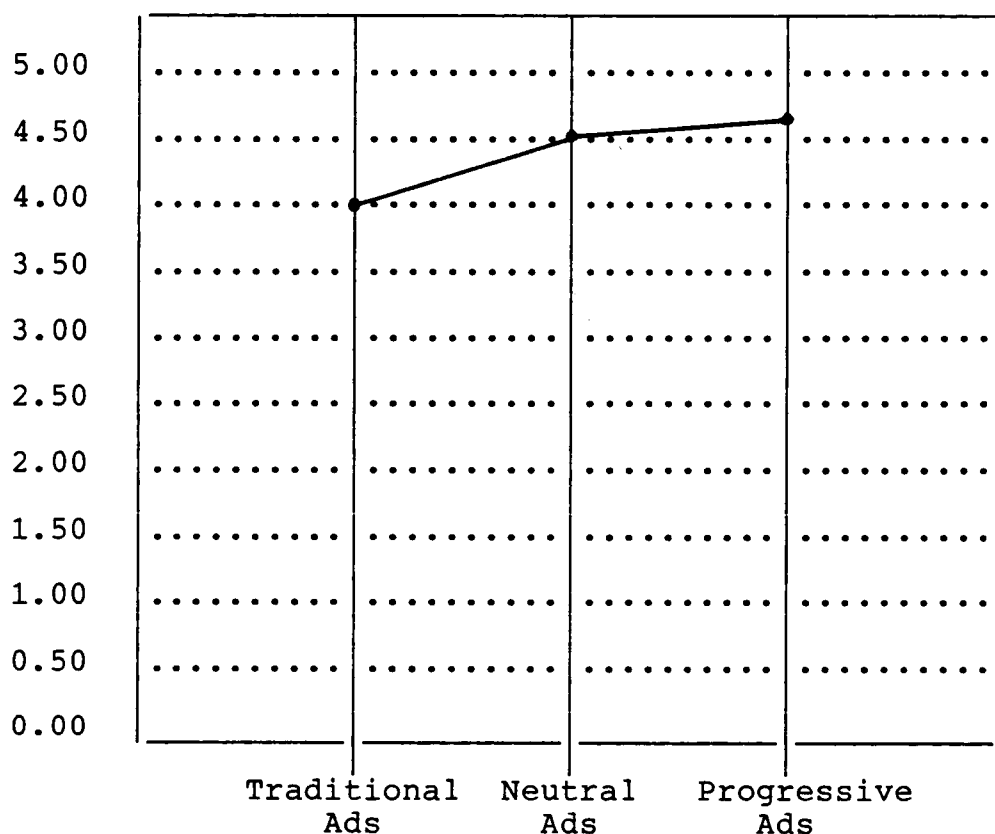


Figure IV-8. Attitude Mean Score Profiles by Advertisement Type.

For Attitudes, the results of the analysis of variance and the Newman-Keuls procedure show that Employment Status

and Advertisement Type seem to be dominating the responses to the advertisements themselves. So far, the pattern is becoming increasingly clearer in showing that the Traditional advertisements are perceived differently from the Neutral and Progressive advertisements. The Traditional advertisements produced lower Attitude scores, higher Negative Remarks and more Counterarguments. Additionally, responses also appear to be a function of Employment Status in as much as the Stay-at-Home women seem to be much less critical of advertisements in general than the other three groups of women. Finally, up to this point, it would be safe to say that the responses to the advertisements appear to be only somewhat dependent on the type of magazine in which they appear.

It may be pointed out that even though significant differences were found between the means for Attitude, the actual differences between the mean scores are not very great. The means from the four groups of Employment Status, for example, ranged from 3.94 to 4.74. If 4.00 can be considered the midpoint on an eight-point scale, then it can be seen that all of the scores tended to cluster around the center of the scale. The scores for Advertisement Type cluster even closer to the center-point (4.00 to 4.64). As stated before, this probably indicates that advertisements are not generally considered important by the subjects.

Product Purchase Intentions

The fifth dependent variable to be discussed is product Purchase Intentions. Two measures of behavioral intention toward the product were included in the study. The first one, Purchase Intention, was measured on a five-point scale with responses ranging from "definitely would buy" to "definitely would not buy." The second scale, Purchase Probability, was measured on a ten-point scale which asked the respondents to estimate what they thought the chance would be of purchasing each of the products portrayed in the advertisements, if it was available. These two behavioral intention scales were developed by Juster (1966) and validated through replication studies by Gruber (1970).

According to Gruber, Purchase Intention measures, as the name implies, whether or not the individual intends to purchase the product, while Purchase Probability measures the degree or strength of the intention. Used in this study as separate dependent measures, it was thought that the two scales should provide a more accurate picture of behavioral intent than if only one was used. Table IV-24 shows the cell means and standard deviations (in parentheses) for Purchase Intention by Employment Status, Magazine Type and Advertisement Type.

Table IV-24. Purchase Intention Mean Scores and Standard Deviations by Employment Status, Magazine Type and Advertisement Type.

Employment Status w/ Magazine Type:	Purchase Intentions			
	Trad. Ad	Neut. Ad	Prog. Ad	Marginal
Just-a-Job/ Trad. Magazine	2.00 (.866)	2.67 (.707)	2.56 (.726)	2.40
Just-a-Job/ Prog. Magazine	1.67 (.866)	3.00 (1.00)	2.33 (1.00)	2.33
Career-Oriented/ Trad. Magazine	2.22 (.667)	1.89 (1.05)	2.22 (1.09)	2.11
Career-Oriented/ Prog. Magazine	2.11 (.781)	2.78 (1.20)	3.00 (1.00)	2.63
Stay-at-Home/ Trad. Magazine	2.56 (.726)	2.67 (.866)	2.89 (.782)	2.70
Stay-at-Home/ Prog. Magazine	2.44 (.882)	2.56 (.726)	2.89 (.928)	2.63
Plan-to-Work/ Trad. Magazine	2.22 (.130)	3.11 (.333)	2.78 (.971)	2.70
Plan-to-Work/ Prog. Magazine	2.56 (1.01)	2.44 (.527)	3.00 (.866)	2.67
Marginals	2.22	2.64	2.70	2.52

Note: Standard deviations in parentheses.

It can be seen in the table above that the scores for Purchase Intention ranged from a low mean score of 1.67 to a high mean of 3.00, on a five-point scale. A mean score of 3.00 would indicate a moderately strong intention to

purchase the products in the advertisements. Analysis of variance was performed to test whether variations in the means for Purchase Intention by Employment Status, Magazine Type and Advertisement Type were significantly different. Specifically, the F test tested the following null hypotheses:

Purchase Intention Null Hypotheses

- HoPI1: The means for product Purchase Intention from the four categories of Employment Status are equal.
- HoPI2: The means for product Purchase Intention within the two categories of Magazine Type are equal.
- HoPI3: The means for product Purchase Intention are equal for each of the three Advertisement Types.
- HoPI4: The means for product Purchase Intention by Employment Status by Magazine Type are equal.
- HoPI5: The means for product Purchase Intention by Employment Status by Advertisement Type are equal.
- HoPI6: The means for product Purchase Intention by Magazine Type by Advertisement Type are equal.
- HoPI7: The means for product Purchase Intention by Employment Status by Magazine Type by Advertisement Type are equal.

Table IV-25 shows significant main effects by Advertisement Type alone ($p \leq .01$). Thus, only null hypothesis HoPI3 may be rejected. Since no other main effects, two-way, or three-way interaction effects were found to be significant, no other null hypotheses may be rejected. Apparently, the type of advertisement is, again,

dominating responses to themselves. Or to put it another way, at least one of the advertisements was considered to be different from the others regardless of the magazine in which it appeared or the Employment Status group which evaluated it.

Table IV-25. Summary Table for Analysis of Variance of Mean Scores for Product Purchase Intention By Employment Status, Magazine Type and Advertisement Type.

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
<u>Between Groups:</u>				
Employment Status	5.05093	3	1.68364	2.06
Magazine Type	0.37500	1	0.37500	0.46
Employment X Magazine	3.42130	3	1.14043	1.39
Error	52.37037	64	0.81829	
<u>Within Groups:</u>				
Advertisement Type	9.95370	2	4.97685	6.30**
Advertisement X Employment Status	4.93519	6	0.82253	1.04
Advertisement X Magazine Type	0.58333	2	0.29167	0.37
Advertisement X Magazine X Employment	6.00926	6	1.00154	1.27
Error	101.18519	128	0.79051	

*Significant at .05.

**Significant at .01.

Purchase Intent main effects by Advertisement Type.

The Newman-Keuls procedure was conducted on the cell means for Purchase Intention by Advertisement Type to determine

significant differences between each combination of mean pairs ($p \leq .05$). Table IV-26 shows the rank-ordered means for Purchase Intention and significant differences. Means connected by the vertical lines to the right of the means are not significantly different from each other. Below that, Figure IV-9 shows the profiles of these means.

Table IV-26. Rank Ordered Purchase Intention Mean Scores by Advertisement Type, Showing Significant Differences.

Advertisement Type	Mean
Traditional Advertisements	2.22
Neutral Advertisements	2.64
Progressive Advertisements	2.71

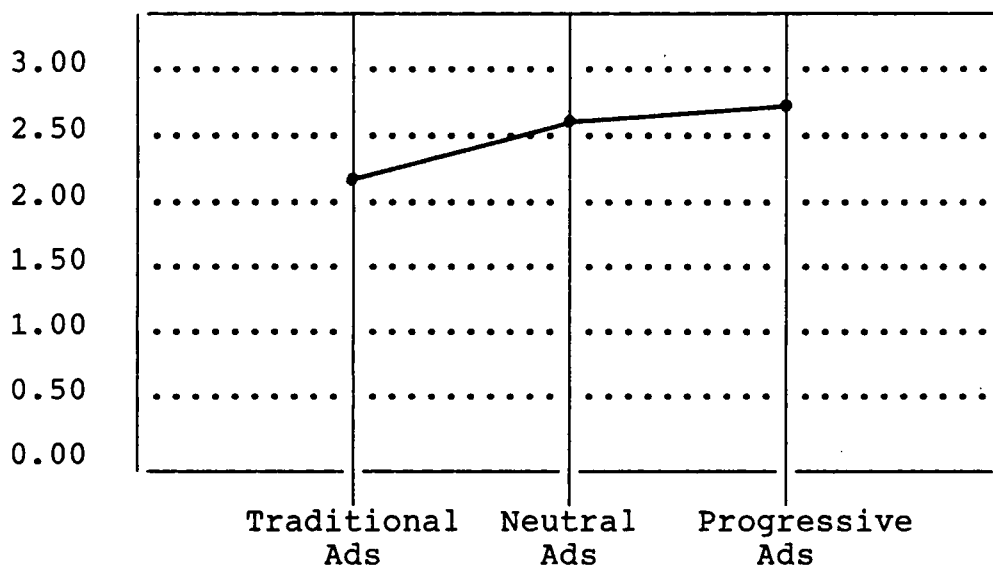


Figure IV-9. Purchase Intention Mean Score Profiles by Advertisement Type.

As before, the Newman-Keuls procedure found significant differences between the mean for Traditional advertisements and the Neutral and Progressive advertisements. Also as before, the mean for the Neutral advertisements was not found to be significantly different from the Progressive advertisements. It is evident, then, that the Traditional advertisements produced significantly lower Purchase Intention scores than did the Neutral or Progressive advertisements. However, as far as Purchase Intentions are concerned, the Neutral and Progressive advertisements must be considered to be statistically equal, even though the Progressive advertisements produced the highest mean score. It can be pointed out that the actual differences between the means vary by only a few tenths of a point. In fact, all three advertisement types scored within the range of one point, namely, 2.00 to 3.00. From a purely practical standpoint, this would indicate that all three advertisement types produced roughly the same intent to purchase the products. On the other hand, it may be said that in the "real world" of product purchases, a few tenths of a point difference in purchase intent could result in a very large difference in sales. An examination of the findings for the sixth, and final variable--Purchase Probability--could add more meaning to the findings from Purchase Intention.

Product Purchase Probability

The last dependent variable to be examined is a measure of the probability associated with the subjects' purchasing the products in the test advertisements. As mentioned earlier, Purchase Probability was measured along a ten-point scale which ranged from "certain," or near 100% probability to "no chance," or zero probability. Each of the products portrayed in each of the test advertisements was rated by the subjects using this scale.

Purchase Probability was included in this study to provide an additional measure of the relative effectiveness of each of the advertisement types within the two magazine types by each of the Employment Status groups. As was discussed in Chapter III, Purchase Intent indicates whether or not the individual would purchase the product, while Purchase Probability attaches a probability of purchase actually occurring. It was found that all three advertisement types produced roughly the same Purchase Intention scores, even though the Traditional advertisements were significantly lower. The additional measure of Purchase Probability may indicate where precise differences in response to the advertisements occurred among the subjects. Table IV-27 shows the cell means and standard deviations for Purchase Probability by Employment Status, Magazine Type and Advertisement Type.

Table IV-27. Purchase Probability Mean Scores and Standard Deviations by Employment Status, Magazine Type and Advertisement Type.

Employment Status w/ Magazine Type:	Purchase Probability			
	Trad. Ad	Neut. Ad	Prog. Ad	Marginal
Just-a-Job/ Trad. Magazine	2.67 (2.74)	4.67 (1.66)	3.56 (2.30)	3.63
Just-a-Job/ Prog. Magazine	1.44 (1.88)	3.89 (2.57)	2.67 (1.94)	2.67
Career-Oriented/ Trad. Magazine	2.11 (2.08)	1.78 (2.49)	1.89 (2.09)	1.93
Career-Oriented/ Prog. Magazine	1.33 (1.41)	3.33 (2.29)	3.78 (2.91)	2.82
Stay-at-Home/ Trad. Magazine	2.22 (1.56)	2.78 (3.38)	4.22 (2.28)	3.07
Stay-at-Home/ Prog. Magazine	3.33 (2.69)	3.22 (2.28)	4.11 (3.18)	3.56
Plan-to-Work/ Trad. Magazine	2.44 (2.83)	5.67 (1.50)	3.44 (2.65)	3.85
Plan-to-Work/ Prog. Magazine	3.22 (1.99)	1.78 (1.20)	3.22 (2.44)	2.74
Marginals	2.35	3.89	3.36	3.03

Note: Standard deviations in parentheses.

Table IV-27 shows the mean scores for Purchase Probability ranging from a low mean of 1.33, for the Traditional advertisements in the Progressive magazines and

rated by the Career-Oriented women, to a high mean of 5.67 for the Neutral advertisement in the Traditional magazines rated by the Plan-to-Work women. A score of 1.33 indicates that the products being advertised in that particular type of advertisement enjoys almost no chance at all of being purchased. On the other hand, an average score of 5.67 indicates that the products being advertised in that particular combination of advertisement and magazine to that group of women enjoys a probability of slightly better than an even chance of being purchased.

An F test was employed to test whether the variations between the means portrayed above occurred by chance. The null hypotheses presented below were tested.

Purchase Probability Null Hypotheses

- HoPP1: The means for product Purchase Probability from the four categories of Employment Status are equal.
- HoPP2: The means for product Purchase Probability within the two categories of Magazine Type are equal.
- HoPP3: The means for product Purchase Probability are equal for each of the three Advertisement Types.
- HoPP4: The means for product Purchase Probability by Employment Status by Magazine Type are equal.
- HoPP5: The means for product Purchase Probability by Employment Status by Advertisement Type are equal.
- HoPP6: The means for product Purchase Probability by Magazine Type by Advertisement Type are equal.
- HoPP7: The means for product Purchase Probability by Employment Status by Magazine Type by Advertisement Type are equal.

Table IV-28, below, is the summary table for analysis of variance on the means for Purchase Probability. This table shows significant main effects for Advertisement Type and significant three-way interaction effects for Employment Status by Magazine Type by Advertisement Type. Therefore, the null hypotheses HoPP3 and HoPP7, can be rejected. All other null hypotheses (HoPP1, HoPP2, HoPP4, HoPP5 and HoPP6), for Purchase Probability can be retained.

Table IV-28. Summary Table for Analysis of Variance of Mean Scores for Purchase Probability By Employment Status, Magazine Type and Advertisement Type.

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	<u>df</u>	Mean Square	<u>F</u>
<u>Between Groups:</u>				
Employment Status	32.45833	3	10.22685	1.65
Magazine Type	1.67130	1	1.67130	0.26
Employment X Magazine	41.31019	3	13.77006	2.10
Error	419.33333	64	6.55208	
<u>Within Groups:</u>				
Advertisement Type	50.73148	2	25.36574	5.21**
Advertisement X Employment Status	32.97222	6	5.49537	1.13
Advertisement X Magazine Type	6.84259	2	3.42130	0.70
Advertisement X Magazine X Employment	70.34259	6	11.72377	2.41*
Error	623.11111	128	4.86806	

*Significant at .05.

**Significant at .01.

Purchase Probability three-way interaction effects.

The Newman-Keuls procedure was performed on the cell means for the three-way interaction of Employment Status, Magazine Type and Advertisement type for Purchase Probability. Table IV-29 shows the rank-ordered cell means, with significant differences shown.

Table IV-29. Rank Ordered Purchase Probability Means by Employment Status, Magazine Type and Advertisement Type, Showing Significant Differences.

Employment Status	Magazine	Advertisement	Mean
Career-Oriented	/ Progressive	/ Traditional	1.33
Just-a-Job	/ Progressive	/ Traditional	1.44
Career-Oriented	/ Traditional	/ Neutral	1.78
Plan-to-Work	/ Progressive	/ Neutral	1.78
Career-Oriented	/ Traditional	/ Progressive	1.89
Career-Oriented	/ Traditional	/ Traditional	2.11
Stay-at-Home	/ Traditional	/ Traditional	2.22
Plan-to-Work	/ Traditional	/ Traditional	2.44
Just-a-Job	/ Traditional	/ Traditional	2.67
Just-a-Job	/ Progressive	/ Progressive	2.67
Stay-at-Home	/ Traditional	/ Neutral	2.78
Plan-to-Work	/ Progressive	/ Traditional	3.22
Stay-at-Home	/ Progressive	/ Neutral	3.22
Plan-to-Work	/ Progressive	/ Progressive	3.22
Stay-at-Home	/ Progressive	/ Traditional	3.33
Career-Oriented	/ Progressive	/ Neutral	3.33
Plan-to-Work	/ Traditional	/ Progressive	3.44
Just-a-Job	/ Traditional	/ Progressive	3.56
Career-Oriented	/ Progressive	/ Progressive	3.78
Just-a-Job	/ Progressive	/ Neutral	3.89
Stay-at-Home	/ Progressive	/ Progressive	4.11
Stay-at-Home	/ Traditional	/ Progressive	4.22
Just-a-Job	/ Traditional	/ Neutral	4.67
Plan-to-Work	/ Traditional	/ Neutral	5.67

Inspection of the rank-ordered means from the Table IV-29, shows that the highest two mean scores (5.67 and 4.67) are significantly different from each other and significantly higher than the remaining scores. Beyond that, inspection, and subsequent understanding, becomes more difficult. It can be seen, for example, that except for a couple of cases, the Traditional advertisements tend to cluster at the bottom end of the range, with the Neutral and Progressive advertisements clustering toward the higher end of the range. Furthermore, the means coming from the two categories of women employed outside of the home tend to cluster toward the lower end of the range of scores.

The lowest score was for the Traditional advertisement in the Progressive magazine as rated by the Career-Oriented women. This low score could be attributed to the contrast between the type of magazine and the type of advertisement. This notion may be somewhat confirmed by the finding that the next lowest score is again the Traditional advertisements in the Progressive magazines--this time rated by the Just-a-Job women. On the other hand, the two highest rated advertisement/magazine treatment combinations came from the Neutral advertisement and Traditional magazines. This could indicate that the type of magazine only influences the responses to the advertisements when some kind of inconsistency is perceived. In other words, a

Traditional advertisement in a Progressive magazine may have been perceived by some of the subjects as being "out of place," especially from the women who work outside of the home. On the other hand, a Progressive advertisement in a Traditional magazine is not perceived in the same way. As evidenced by the table above, this combination tended to score higher on Purchase Probability than the opposite combination. This could be attributed to the notion that a Progressive or Neutral advertisement in a Traditional magazine is a welcome change, or at least is not considered to be "out of place."

It doesn't appear to be clear which type of magazine tends to be a "better" carrier of advertising messages. Both the Traditional magazines and the Progressive magazines showed appreciably high scores on Purchase Probability. On the other hand, both types of magazines also showed appreciably low Purchase Probability scores. It is apparent that much depends on the type of advertisement being carried by the magazine and the category of woman evaluating it. Finally, the tendency of the Stay-at-Home women--and to a lesser degree, the Plan-to-Work women--to be less critical of all of the advertisements holds true for this variable as well as for the previously discussed variable, Counterargument. Figure IV-10, shows the Purchase Probability mean score profiles by Employment Status, Magazine Type and Advertisement Type.

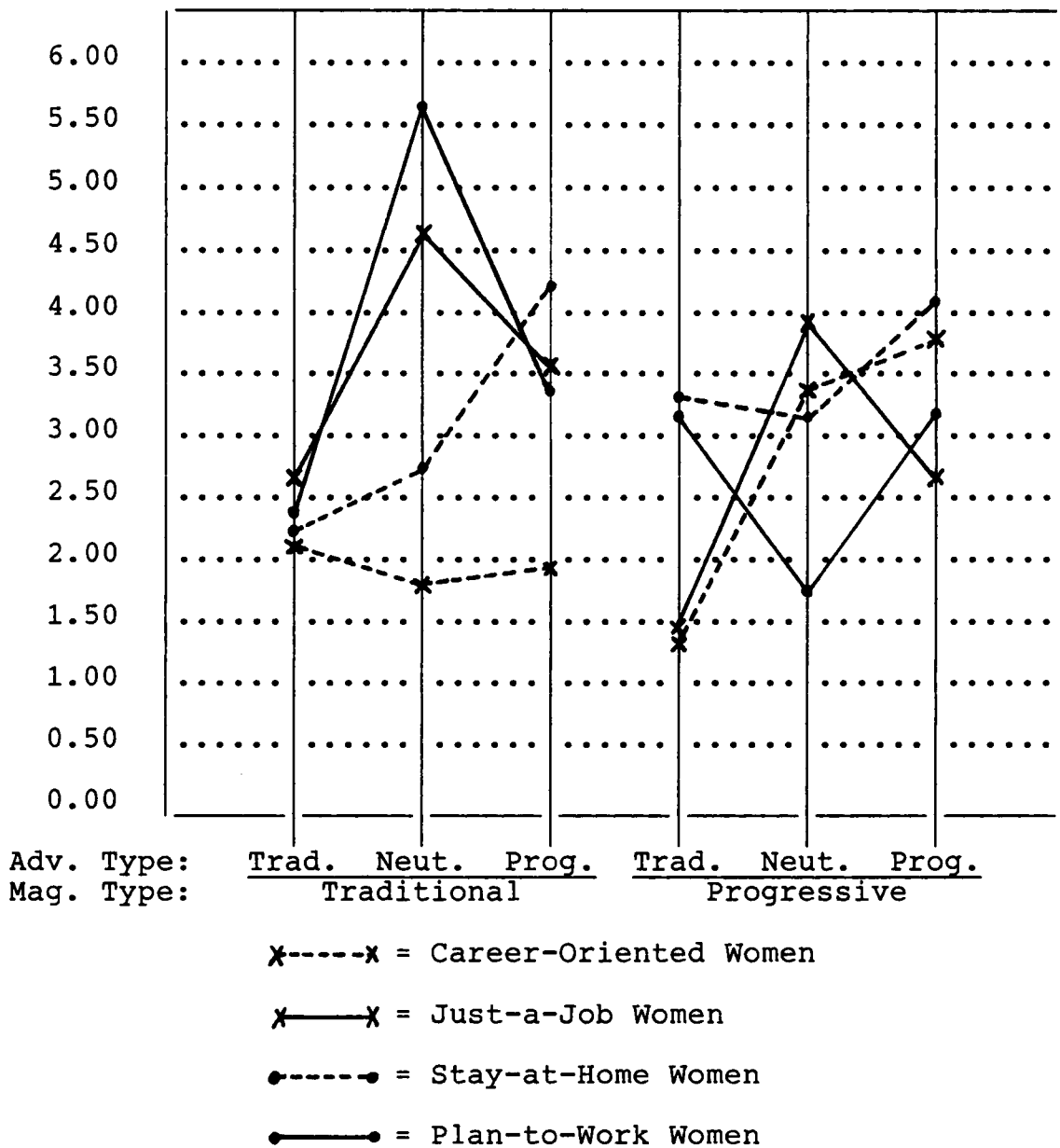


Figure IV-10. Purchase Probability Mean Score Profiles by Advertisement Type, Magazine Type and Employment Status.

Purchase Probability main effects. Main effects of Advertisement Type on Purchase Probability were significant at the .001 level, according to the F test. For that reason, it was appropriate to conduct the Newman-Keuls procedure for the cell means of Purchase Probability by Advertisement Type alone. This was carried out with the alpha level set at equal to or less than .05. Table IV-30, shows the rank-ordered means for Purchase Probability by Advertisement Type. Following that, Figure IV-11, shows the profiles of these mean scores.

This table and the figure below it, show that the Traditional advertisements produced significantly lower Purchase Probability scores than did either the Progressive or Neutral advertisements. The Progressive and Neutral advertisements are not significantly different from each other. This is almost the same pattern which was seen for Negative Remarks, Counterarguments, Attitude and Purchase Intention. The only difference between the pattern above and the previously discussed patterns is that the Progressive advertisement and the Neutral advertisement have reversed positions. However, since statistically these mean scores are considered to be equal, then it can be said that the pattern holds true for Purchase Probability as well as for the other dependent variables.

Table IV-30. Rank Ordered Purchase Probability Mean Scores by Advertisement Type, Showing Significant Differences.

Advertisement Type	Mean
Traditional Advertisements	2.35
Progressive Advertisements	3.36
Neutral Advertisements	3.39

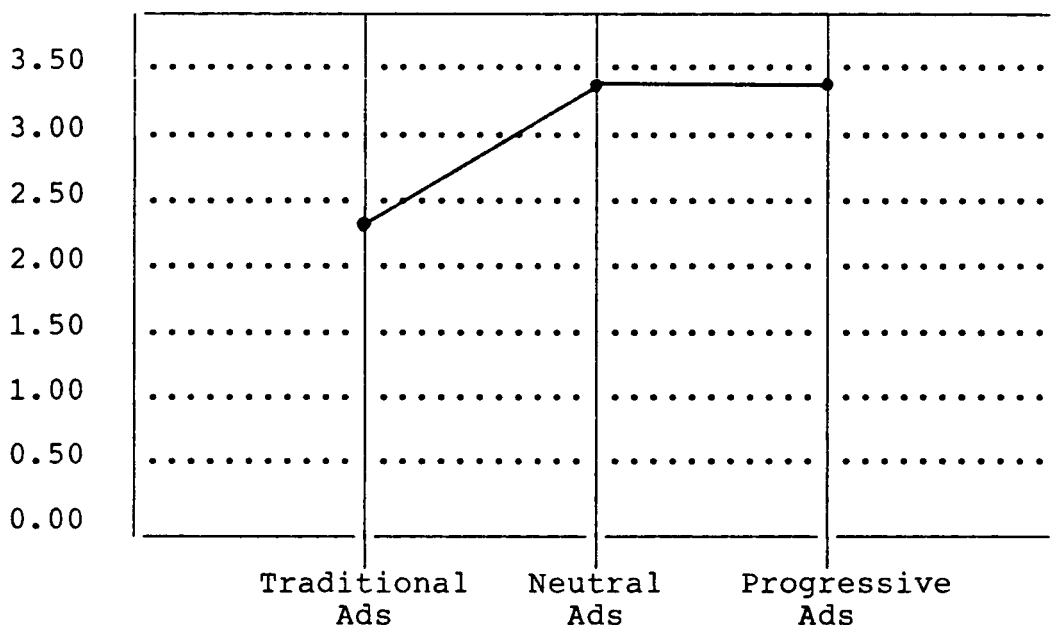


Figure IV-11. Purchase Probability Mean Score Profiles by Advertisement Type.

This finding would seem to confirm rather emphatically that the Traditional advertisements were generally less effective than the Neutral advertisements or the Progressive advertisements. On every variable, except

Positive Remarks, Advertisement Type was a significant main effect. And, in every variable where this main effect occurred, the Traditional advertisements performed more poorly than the others. For Purchase Probability, this means that the Traditional advertisements produced a smaller likelihood that the products being portrayed would be purchased by the four groups of women. For the products advertised in the Traditional advertisements, this translates into roughly a 25% chance that the product would be purchased. For the products in the Neutral and Progressive advertisements, the chance of purchase increases to about 33%.

Summary and Conclusions

This chapter has presented and examined the results of an experimental study which looked at the relative effectiveness of three types of advertisements aimed at women. This study attempted to go beyond previous studies which examined the roles portrayed by women in advertising or the manner in which women are referred to in advertisements by placing the test advertisements in the context of two types of advertising media vehicles. As an additional attempt at differentiating from previous studies, the reactions of the advertisements from four distinct groups of women were analyzed as well.

Six dependent variables were studied in this

experiment. Three of these--Positive Remarks, Negative Remarks and Counterarguments--were included to measure the manner in which information is processed as an indicator of potential success or failure of communication stimuli. The other three dependent variables--Attitude, Purchase Intention, and Purchase Probability were included as direct measures of communication effects.

The findings for all of the dependent variables, with the exception of Positive Remarks, indicate that while other factors, such as Employment Status and Magazine Type, may have an interactive effect on subject reaction to the advertisements, the type of advertisement itself appears to dominate subject consideration of the advertisements. In other words, reactions to the advertisements appear to be relatively independent of the vehicle in which they are placed or the demographic category of the woman reacting to it. However, this kind of statement cannot be made unqualified. Two of the variables produced three-way interaction effects of Employment Status, Magazine Type and Advertisement Type. These two variables were Counterargument and Purchase Probability. It can be pointed out that these two measures were designed to be more precise and more extensive measures than the other four and thus were possibly detecting more precise variations in response.

In general the study revealed that Traditional

advertisements were consistently less effective than either the Neutral or Progressive advertisements--no matter what the measure. Traditional advertisements produced more Negative Responses and Counterarguments, fewer Positive Remarks and lower Attitude scores, as well as lower Purchase Intention and Purchase Probability scores. When Magazine Type was a significant effect, the Progressive magazines produced higher Positive Remarks for the advertisements in them than the Traditional advertisements. However, when Magazine Type is examined along with Employment Status and Advertisement Type, the picture is less clear. It appears that the influence of the magazine on reactions to the advertisements is a negative influence when the advertisement is perceived as being inconsistent with the editorial environment of the magazine. For example, it was found that the Traditional advertisements in the Progressive magazines performed more poorly than the Progressive advertisements in the Traditional magazines.

As far as the four groups of women, as defined by their occupation status, are concerned, the two groups most critical of all advertisements were the Career-Oriented and the Just-a-Job employed women. The group most favorable toward the advertisements in general was the Stay-at-Home non-employed women. When Employment Status was a significant main effect, the Plan-to-Work women tended to be either significantly different from the other three

groups or were only significantly different from the Stay-at-Home group. This would seem to indicate that this group is somehow in transition. It would appear that attitudinally they are caught between the Stay-at-Home women on one hand, and the two groups of employed women on the other.

Finally, it can be noted that the advertisements used in this study differed only in their respective headlines. All other aspects of the advertisements, the illustrations, the copy, the logos, and the overall design were equal for each product ad. The fact that significant main and/or interaction effects were found for all of the dependent measures indicates that even small differences in advertising approaches can produce significant differences in the way in which the advertisements are received. The clear lesson to be learned from this, is that advertisers must be especially careful in the manner in which they advertise to women in today's society. This is not a new lesson, but perhaps the research presented in this study will reinforce it further.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Summary of the Study

In the first chapter of this dissertation, the advertising, marketing and communication literature was reviewed with a focus on the portrayal and roles of women in advertising messages. This review showed that throughout the decade of the 1970's, study upon study found that advertising had not kept pace with the changing roles of women in today's society.

Studies conducted in the latter part of the 70's and the early years of the 80's, although fewer in number, focused on effects of advertising's portrayal of women. These studies, taken as a whole, tend to be inconclusive. About half of the effects studies concluded that advertisers should not worry about the portrayals of women in their messages--that the portrayals did not affect responses to the advertisements. The other half of the studies concluded that negative or traditional portrayals are less effective than positive or contemporary portrayals.

An advertiser attempting to advertise to women in today's society faces a complex situation. First, it can be said that women in this country are taking advantage of

opportunities to expand their roles in many directions previously unavailable to them, or available only at great personal struggle. Women can and have adopted the role of breadwinner, chosen to remain in the home as homemaker, or have chosen dual roles of breadwinner and homemaker. To an advertiser, this makes precise definition of women as a target audience increasingly difficult as roles no longer contain clearcut distinctions.

Second, as a result of women adopting new roles in society, or perhaps as a cause of adopting new roles, some segments of the female population are very dissatisfied with some of the portrayals of women in the media, including advertising. At the very least, many women are sensitive to their portrayal in the media. This indicates a strong need for advertisers to reciprocate in kind with sensitivity about the way these roles are developed, projected, and sustained or abandoned in their messages. The advertiser is faced with the problem of at least creating messages that contain acceptable portrayals, if not positive, future-directed portrayals.

Third, compounding the problem of advertising to today's women, is the fact that the past decade and a half has seen a rapid expansion of specialized media vehicles, both in print and broadcast. Advertisers have never had so many choices available to them as outlets for their messages. On the surface, this may seem to be a solution

to the problem of advertising to different groups of women occupying different roles in society. One simply tailors messages to the particular vehicles in which they will be placed. On the other hand, advertisers must also be efficiency-minded in trying to communicate one, consistent message to their audiences. Additionally, only recently have the media been able to supply information to advertisers about media audiences that goes beyond conventional demographic data toward more useful socio-psychological data. This new data further provides advertisers with the ability to tailor messages to particular audiences.

Having the ability to tailor messages and actually tailoring messages are two different things, however. As indicated before, without evidence showing real benefits of one message strategy over another, advertisers tend to adopt conventional--and proven successful--paths. Advertisers may have the desire to contribute to the improvement of society, but they also have the responsibility to contribute to profit building and successful product development. The improvement of society through advertising entails risk-taking, while profit building through advertising entails risk-reduction.

The goal of the dissertation study presented here was to attempt to provide evidence, through research, that may help advertisers craft better, more efficient messages

aimed at women. The study was designed to attempt to discover whether one or more different message strategies, of the type that have been and are used by advertisers, would be effective in communicating to four categories of women. Furthermore, the role of two types of media vehicles in carrying the advertisers' messages, and the impact of the vehicle on the perception of the message were also examined.

Although this study was intended to be more practical than theoretical, a second goal was to produce information which would contribute to the general understanding of advertising effectiveness, the communication process in general, and information processing in particular. Both of these goals have been achieved, and conclusions which may be drawn from this study are presented below.

Conclusions from the Findings

Chapter IV presented the results of this experimental study which produced significant main and/or interactive effects for every communication variable measured. The specific communication effects variables included three measures of cognitive response to the messages, attitude toward the message, and two measures of purchase intention toward the products being advertised. While a discussion of statistical significance is important, a more fundamental discussion of the results should focus on the

practical significance to the advertiser who desires to advertise to women.

In designing an advertising campaign, one of the first steps is to define the target audience. Once defined, media are chosen on the basis of which media would most efficiently carry the advertising message. Then, the message itself is created with an eye toward effectively communicating product information and benefits. In examining the findings presented in this study and drawing conclusions from them, that too shall be the pattern of approach.

Assuming that the advertiser has defined the target audience as Career-Oriented employed women, and that the product is appropriate to that group, then the next step is to determine the most appropriate media vehicle. For this group of women, the most logical and statistically evident choice would be Progressive magazines. Except for the Traditional advertisements, ads in this type of magazine produced a lower number of Counterarguments and a higher level of Product Purchase Probability from the Career-Oriented women than the Traditional magazines. The evidence also indicates that the most appropriate message strategy for this group of women would be the Progressive approach, if Purchase Probability is the effectiveness criterion.

If Counterargument is the criterion, then the most

appropriate strategy would be a Neutral approach, followed by the Progressive approach. Thus, on two effectiveness criteria, it may be said that an advertiser aiming messages at Career-Oriented women would do well to use media vehicles which may be considered progressively oriented, and take a Neutral, if not a Progressive, stance in message strategy. Neither Traditional magazines or Traditional messages did well against this particular group of employed women.

If Just-a-Job employed women is the target market, then the most appropriate vehicle tends to depend on the message strategy. A Traditional message strategy approach does not work well for these women in either Traditional or Progressive magazines, receiving a high level of Counterarguments and a low level of Purchase Probability. A Neutral message approach received about the same level of Counterargument in both types of magazines, but a higher level of Purchase Probability in the Traditional magazine. The Progressive advertising approach received the lowest level of Counterarguments from this group in the Traditional magazine, as well as a higher Purchase Probability.

The above would seem to indicate to an advertiser targeting Just-a-Job women, that a Traditional magazine would work best, if the message was either Neutral or Progressive. In general, though, it may be said that the

most effective single message approach is the Neutral approach.

For the Stay-at-Home non-employed women, it would appear that either type of magazine would work equally as well. As far as Counterarguments are concerned, both types of magazine produced about the same level of counterarguments. However, if Purchase Probability is the criterion, then the Progressive magazines may have a slight edge over the Traditional. This group of women responds more favorably to the Progressive advertising approach in either type of magazine than the Neutral or Traditional approach. In the Traditional magazines, with Purchase Probability as the criterion, they responded more favorably to the Neutral approach than the Traditional. In the Progressive magazines, and the same criterion, they responded more favorably to the Traditional approach than the Neutral. In general, then, it may be said about this group of women, that a Neutral or Progressive advertising approach works better than a Traditional approach, and that both Traditional and Progressive magazines work equally as effectively.

Finally, if the Plan-to-Work women were defined as the target audience, it would appear that Traditional magazines would be the best choice, in general, to carry the message. Among the women in this group, the Traditional magazines produced a lower number of Counterarguments than the

Progressive magazines, except for the Progressive advertisements in the Progressive magazines. When Purchase Probability was the criterion, the Traditional magazines produced the highest scores in general. An exception was Traditional advertisements. In the Traditional magazines, the Traditional advertisements performed more poorly than in the Progressive magazines for this group of women.

As far as which message strategy worked best toward this group of women, again it depends on which magazine type the advertisement was carried in. In the Traditional magazines, the Neutral advertisements produced the lowest level of Counterarguments and the highest level of Purchase Probability. This advertisement was followed in effectiveness by the Progressive approach and then the Traditional approach. In the Progressive magazines, the Progressive approach produced the lowest level of Counterarguments, but the Traditional and Progressive approaches were equal in Purchase Probability. This would tend to indicate that for the Plan-to-Work women, the best approach would be to advertise in Traditional magazines and to use a Neutral or Progressive approach.

In the above analysis, only Counterarguments and Purchase Probability were considered as effectiveness criteria. This is because it was only on these two measures that significant three-way interactions were produced. However, some conclusions may be drawn from the

significant two-way interactions and main effects found in this study as well. Although these were fairly well discussed in the previous chapter, it might be appropriate to mention them again with an eye toward the practical implications of them.

First, significant two-way interactions were found for Advertisement Type by Magazine Type for Positive Remarks. The results showed that the Progressive magazines produced higher Positive Remarks than the Traditional magazines across all types of advertisements--except for the Traditional advertisements, which were the same as each other, but lower than the other two types of advertisements. This finding was consistent with the finding that Magazine Type also produced significant main effects for Positive Remarks. In this instance, the Progressive magazines produced significantly higher Positive Remarks scores than the Traditional magazines.

About the only conclusion which can be drawn from these findings is that the Progressive magazines seem to provide a slightly better environment for all advertisements in general, and for Neutral and Progressive advertisements in particular, than the Traditional magazines. This may be due to the perceived contrast between the advertisement and the magazine environment. For instance, the Neutral and Progressive advertisements may be perceived as "at home" in the Progressive magazines

and somewhat "out of place" in the Traditional magazines. Although, not as out of place as in the case of the Traditional advertisement in the Progressive magazines.

The Traditional advertisements would seem to be "at home" in the Traditional magazine. And, on the surface, that may be true. However, in this particular instance, the subjects appeared to be reacting to the advertisement type itself, regardless of which type magazine it appeared in, since the Traditional advertisements consistently received the lowest scores of any of the treatments.

Another significant two-way interaction concerned Employment Status by Advertisement Type on Counterarguments. In this instance, it was found that the women who worked outside the home, namely the Career-Oriented and Just-a-Job groups, tended to cluster together in their responses to the advertisements, while the Plan-to-Work and the Stay-at-Home women tended to form another cluster. In general, it may be said that the employed women tended to Counterargue all of the advertisements more than the non-employed women, and the lowest level of Counterarguments came from the Stay-at-Home women.

From all of the groups, except the Stay-at-Home women, the highest Counterarguments were for the Traditional advertisements. From the Plan-to-Work and Just-a-Job women, the Progressive advertisements received the lowest number of Counterarguments. The Career-Oriented women

Counterargued the Neutral ads the owest, and the Stay-at-Home women Counterargued the Traditional, Neutral and Progressive ads at about the same level.

One conclusion to be drawn from these findings is that Career-Oriented women tend to respond better to a Neutral approach in advertisements. This may be due to the fact that the Neutral approach, as designed in this study, was a fairly straightforward, informational approach with emphasis on the product benefits. It could be that this group of women in particular desires and responds better to advertising which presents the information in the message without couching it in the context of their occupational roles or lifestyles. Some support for this notion is also provided by the fact that the Neutral approach was relatively as successful as the Progressive approach and much more successful than the Traditional approach for all of the groups of women. This would seem to indicate that no reference to lifestyle, femininity, or to women as having special needs would be less risky than any reference at all.

The Employment Status of the women in this study was found to be a significant main effect on both Counterarguments and Attitudes toward the advertisements. The findings for Counterarguments indicated that the Just-a-Job and the Career-Oriented women tended to produce more Counterarguments than the Plan-to-Work women, who in

turn, produced more Counterarguments than the Stay-at-Home women. When Attitude was the criterion, the highest Attitude scores came from the Stay-at-Home women, as might be expected from their Counterargument scores. The next highest scores came from the Plan-to-Work women, who were not significantly different from the Just-a-Job women. The Just-a-Job women produced higher, but not significantly different, Attitude scores than the Career-Oriented women.

It can be concluded from these findings, then, that the "easiest" group toward which to advertise is the Stay-at-Home women. The hardest, most critical, group of women to advertise to is the Career-Oriented women. These findings and conclusions are somewhat consistent with the findings from Bartos' study (1982, p. 252), where she found that the Stay-at-Home women were, overall, more approving of the commercials used in her study, than the other groups. Furthermore, she reported that the Career-Oriented women had strong reactions both positive and negative toward the ads in her study.

There are some differences between the findings in this study and those found by Bartos. For instance, Bartos reported that Stay-at-Home and Career-Oriented women were the least critical of the advertisements in her study, and that the Plan-to-Work and Just-a-Job women were the most critical. That finding is not consistent with the findings from this particular study. In this study, it may be said

that the Stay-at-Home and the Plan-to-Work women are the least critical, and the Career-Oriented women are the most critical. These differences in findings may be attributed to the differences in method and measure. Bartos' study used television commercials and only a single measure of attitude as an indicator of effectiveness, while this study used print advertisements and six separate measures of effectiveness.

Bartos' study also indicated, however, that Traditional advertisements, in general, worked less effectively than a more contemporary approach. The findings in this study are also consistent with hers. Advertisement Type was a significant main effect on five out of the six dependent variables: Negative Remarks, Counterarguments, Attitude, Purchase Intention, and Purchase Probability. In all five cases the Traditional advertisements were significantly different from the Neutral and Progressive advertisements. In all five cases, except Purchase Probability, the order of effectiveness, from least effective to most, was Traditional, Neutral, and then, Progressive. In the case of Purchase Probability, the order was Traditional, Progressive and Neutral. Also in all five cases, the Neutral and Progressive advertisements were not found to be significantly different from each other.

Of all the findings of this study, the one just

described is probably the most important. The primary conclusion to be drawn from this finding is that advertisers should avoid the use of Traditional approaches in their advertising to women if they hope to be successful. However, this does not limit the message strategies available to an advertiser to only one choice. As was found in this study, the Neutral--or straight, product-benefit--approach works as well as a Progressive approach. Within these two message strategies, there are undoubtedly many different creative executions which may be used. The main point is, that neither approach runs the risk of offending, irritating, or insulting the women in any of the four groups studied here, as evidenced by this study.

In summary, then, the evidence produced by this study indicates that advertisers have available to them two types of media vehicles, both of which can be said to be effective carriers of advertising messages to different groups of women. Progressive magazines, such as the ones used in this study, appear to be responded to more favorably by Career-Oriented women, who not coincidentally, tend to be the primary target audience for those magazines. However, it may also be said that Progressive magazines worked well for all of the groups of women. Traditional magazines appear to work well among women who are employed, but not oriented toward a career, and to women who are not

employed. Although there would most likely be some overlap in the audiences of these two types of magazines, the non-employed women would most likely be heavier readers of the Traditional magazines.

The fact remains true that the audience of a specific magazine is largely self-selected. In other words, women choose whether or not to read a magazine based on their personal interest in the magazine content. No evidence was found in this study which would tend to be inconsistent with the natural self-selection of magazine audiences. For instance, it was found that Career-Oriented women appear to be more favorable to advertisements in Progressive magazines, while Stay-at-Home women appear to be equally favorable to both types of magazines.

It can be easily documented that Career-Oriented women are more likely to read Progressive magazines and Stay-at-Home women are more likely to read Traditional magazines. If a Career-Oriented woman happens to be a reader of a Traditional magazine, then her perceptions of the advertisements in the magazine might not be as positive as would occur if she saw the advertisements in a Progressive magazine, but these perceptions are still largely a function of the advertisements themselves.

The most important consideration, then, is the type of message being placed in either type of magazine. The test advertisements in this study varied only between headline

treatments. Additionally, these variations contained implicit sex-role referents, rather than explicit referents. The conclusion that can be drawn from this study, then, is that today's women are capable of detecting and reacting to even small, implied, differences in message strategies. Women of today are evidently sensitive to the manner to which they are referred in advertising and will react negatively--attitudinally and behaviorally--to any message they deem inappropriate.

Finally, the evidence from this study indicates that it is not just a "vocal minority" of women who respond negatively to traditional sex-role referents in advertising. All four groups of women responded more positively to neutral and progressive approaches than traditional approaches. The clear implication, then, is that advertisers who respect today's women by portraying them or referring to them in a positive and intelligent manner will gain the respect and patronage of women.

Implications for Future Research

Possibly the most important implication for future research to come out of this study is to attempt to discover more about these four groups of women. As indicated in Chapter III, a few of the women in this study expressed dissatisfaction at having only four categories to choose from in categorizing themselves. Some of the women

were employed, and chose to be employed, in contrast to working only for a paycheck, but felt that their current jobs were "just a job." In other words, on one level, they could be considered as career-oriented, but on another level, they could be considered as having "just a job."

A couple of the subjects in this study found themselves dissatisfied with the categorization scheme because they worked part-time. These women felt they had the best of both worlds because they wanted to work outside the home, and did, but also because they wanted to spend more time with their families, and did. Still, they felt they were career-oriented in that they desired to work, but considered themselves first and foremost to be a Stay-at-Home housewife. Conceivably, some of the Plan-to-Work women could choose the option to work part-time rather than full-time when they do decide to go into the job force. The classification scheme as proposed by Bartos and as used in this study does not readily lend itself to these kinds of exceptions.

The above is mostly a methodological consideration. Related to it, however, is the implication that not much beyond simple demographics is known about these four groups of women. It would be useful to advertisers and marketers to know more about the sociological, psychological and economic characteristics of each group. More needs to be known about the roles these women are adopting; how women

are combining roles of homemaker and breadwinner; how they are coping with these roles; and, what impact these roles have on consumer and communication behavior.

Basic questions could be raised of the type: Are the lifestyles of the Stay-at-Home women different from the lifestyles of the Plan-to-Work women? Are the lifestyles of the Career-Oriented different from Just-a-Job, or different from the Plan-to-Work, or the Stay-at-Home. Undoubtedly, there are differences, but research needs to concentrate on discovering just "who" is today's woman and develop a taxonomy useful in coming to a better understanding of them.

Other future research directions could concentrate more on the influence of the product itself interacting with role portrayals. This study chose to contain product influences by using only the average scores from all of the products. Future studies might want to examine different products aimed at different groups of women. For instance, it is conceivable that a Career-Oriented woman, who is also a wife and homemaker, may be able to consciously or unconsciously switch from one role to the other as the need demands. In other words, while at work, or while considering products that might enhance her work or her appearance at work, she thinks and responds like a Career-Oriented woman. On the other hand, while at home, or while considering products to be used in the home, she

might think and respond like a Stay-at-Home or a Plan-to-Work.

The same notion might especially be applied to the Just-a-Job women. These women are in the workforce, but would prefer to be at home. The question of how they, in particular, juggle the dual roles they have adopted might be important in developing advertising messages to which they will positively respond.

The above discussion leads directly to another research direction, namely, the influence of the product on advertisement perceptions. In this study, products were deliberately chosen which would appeal to all four segments of women. When the question of occupational roles of women comes up, quite naturally an advertiser or a marketer may think in terms of separate product categories for the separate roles. This thinking may be especially true for household products, food items, cleaning products, and home appliances. However, when one thinks in terms of dual roles--that of career woman and homemaker--the question becomes of how these women juggle their roles, and hence, their responses to advertising, becomes even more important. And, how does the product color the responses? When looking at an advertisement for a product used in the home (which could be labeled a traditional product), do women react better to traditional portrayals, neutral portrayals or progressive portrayals?

Conclusion

The objective of this study was to attempt to discover how women react to different sex-role referents in advertising aimed at them, and to attempt to discover what influence the media vehicle carrying the message would have on these reactions. As reported in the final two chapter of this dissertation, this objective has been achieved.

However, it has been said that good research raises as many new questions as it answers. While not immodestly attempting to make any suggestions as to the worth of this study, this research is no exception to that rubric. The research was designed to answer some rather practical questions, since advertising is necessarily a practical discipline. In answering these questions, it also raises more questions, as were discussed just above.

Beyond the practical implications of this study was an attempt to provide evidence that social responsibility and business practices are not mutually exclusive. It is hoped that it has been shown that in meeting their social responsibilities, advertisers can also meet their business responsibilities to the collective benefit of themselves and their consumer audiences. The message is clear. Advertisers and marketing practitioners cannot afford to ignore social change. Above, it was mentioned that reflecting social change in advertising entailed risk

taking. Perhaps a bigger risk is taken when social change is ignored or discounted in the practice of advertising and marketing.

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stereotypes: an investigation in response to
advertising messages. In Beckwith, N., et al. (Eds.)
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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

TEST ADVERTISEMENTS



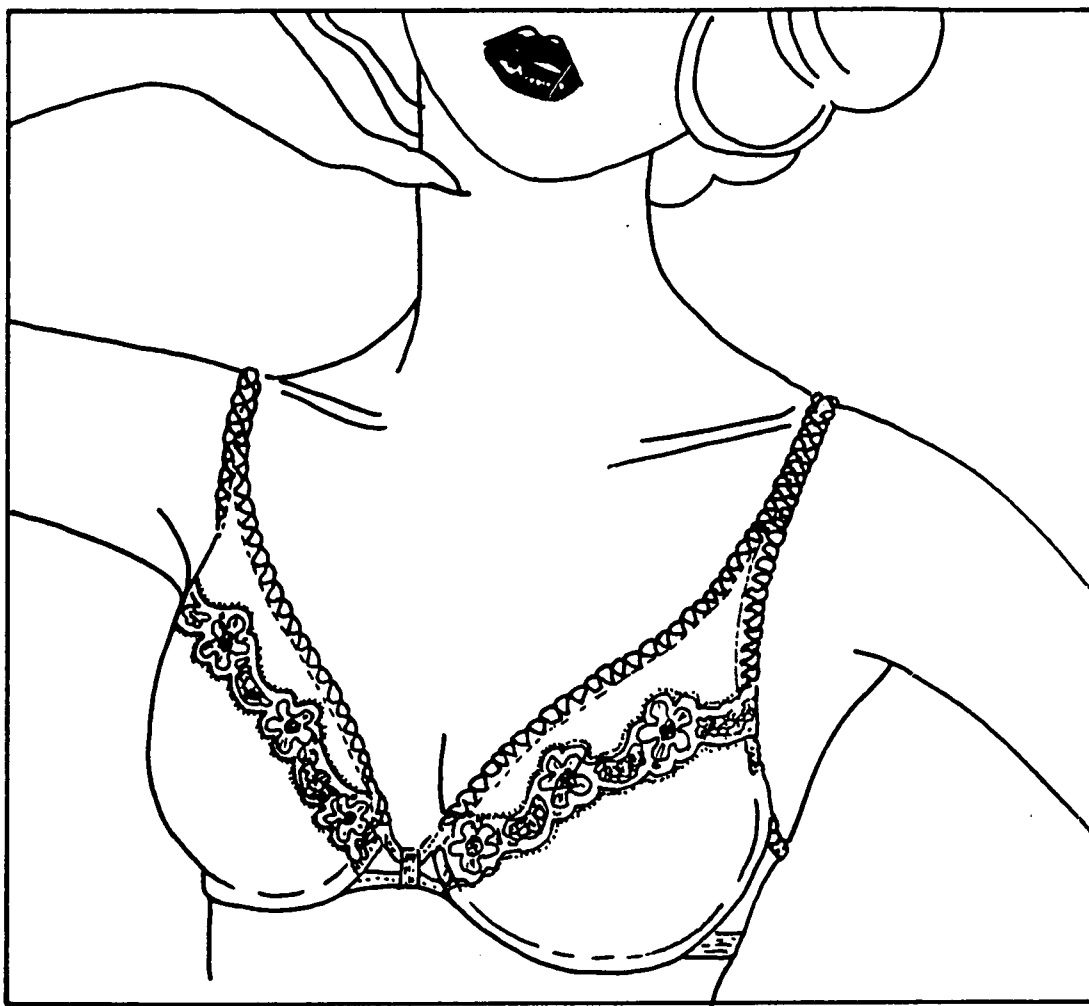
So lacy, so sexy,
so feminine, so comfortable.

Now you can feel feminine and comfortable right down to your skin. With the "Comfort Plus," the new Mademoiselle bra that makes support come smoothly and beautifully.

Satin support fabric with dainty styling gives you one smooth style to wear all through the day. And it's smooth enough to make you look terrific under even the clingiest clothing. All-over stretch and back-adjusting straps make you feel comfortable from the moment you put it on. Because it fits like only a Mademoiselle can fit.

Look for the "Comfort Plus" bra in your Mademoiselle Collection at your favorite department store, in seamless soft cup and seamless stretch underwire. After all, in today's world, a little comfort never hurts.

mademoiselle.



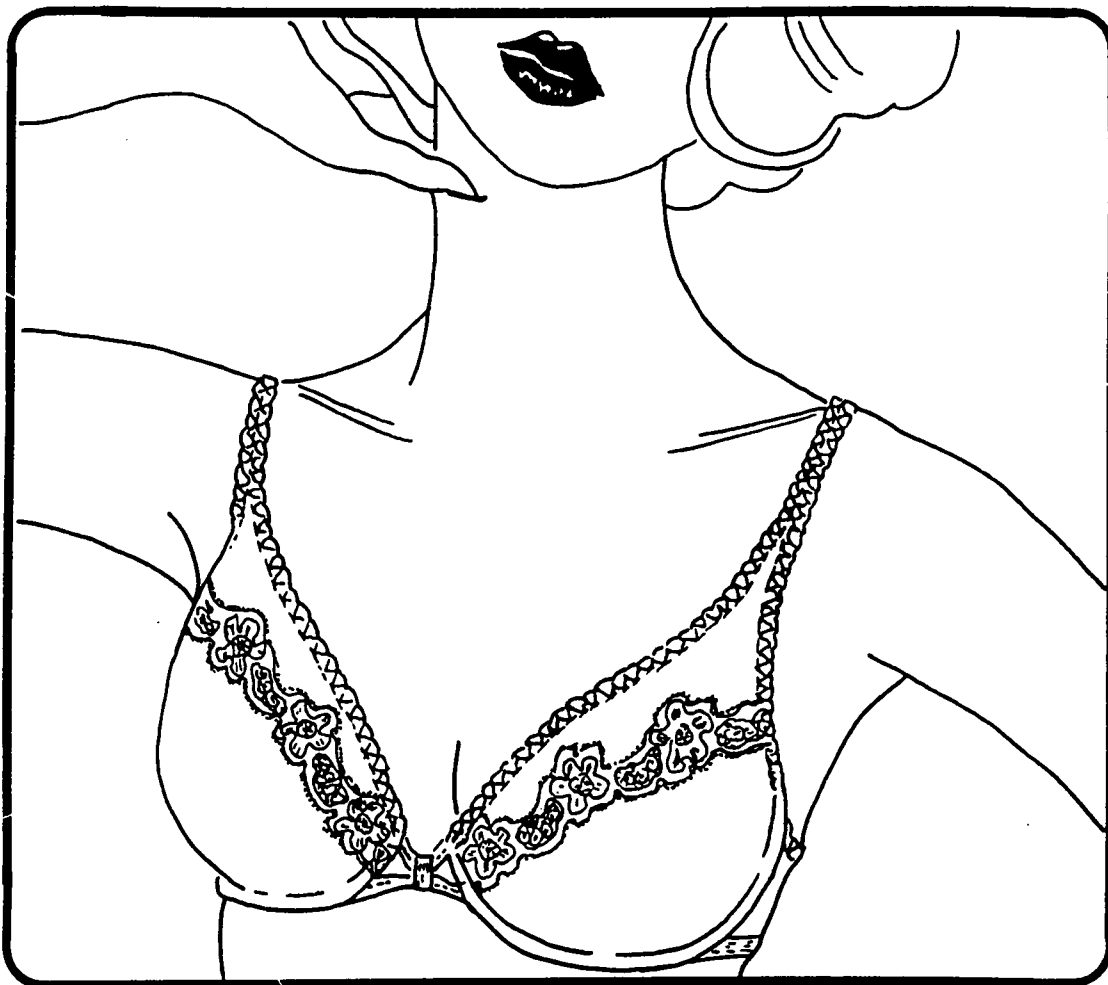
Comfortable all day.

At work or at play, now you can feel comfortable right down to your skin. With the "Comfort Plus" the new Mademoiselle bra that makes support come smoothly.

Satin support fabric with pared-down styling gives you one smooth style to wear all through your active day. It's smooth enough to make you look terrific under even the clingiest clothing. And all-over stretch and back-adjusting straps make you feel comfortable from the moment you put it on. Because it fits like only a Mademoiselle can fit.

Look for the "Comfort Plus" bra in the Mademoiselle Collection at your favorite department store, in seamless soft cup and seamless stretch underwire. After all, in today's world, a little comfort never hurts.

mademoiselle.



All day comfort for today's active woman.

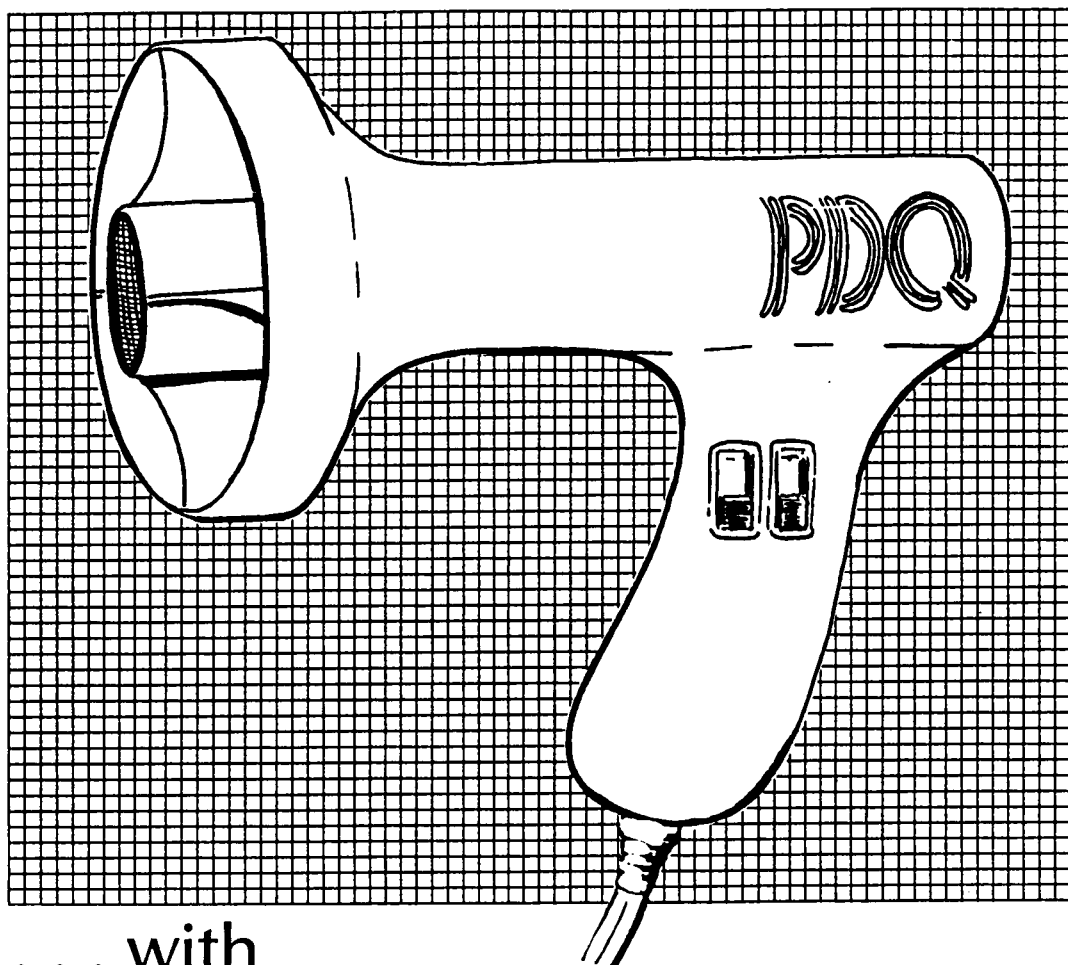
At work or at play, now you can feel comfortable right down to your skin. With the "Comfort Plus" the new Mademoiselle bra that makes support come smoothly.

Satin support fabric with pared-down styling gives you one smooth style to wear all through your active day. It's smooth enough to make you look terrific under even the clingiest clothing. And all-over stretch and back-adjusting straps make you feel comfortable from the moment you put it on. Because it fits like only a Mademoiselle can fit.

Look for the "Comfort Plus" bra in the Mademoiselle Collection at your favorite department store, in seamless soft cup and seamless stretch underwire. After all, in today's world, a little comfort never hurts.

mademoiselle.

The PDQ Blow Dryer . . . Power and speed for quick drying



. . . with
the gentleness a woman deserves.

The PDQ is the most powerful hand-held hairdryer you can buy today . . . and the most gentle. The special patented diffuser head lets you dry and style your hair quickly and gently, without the damage of high heat. That means no more dry, brittle, fly-away hair.

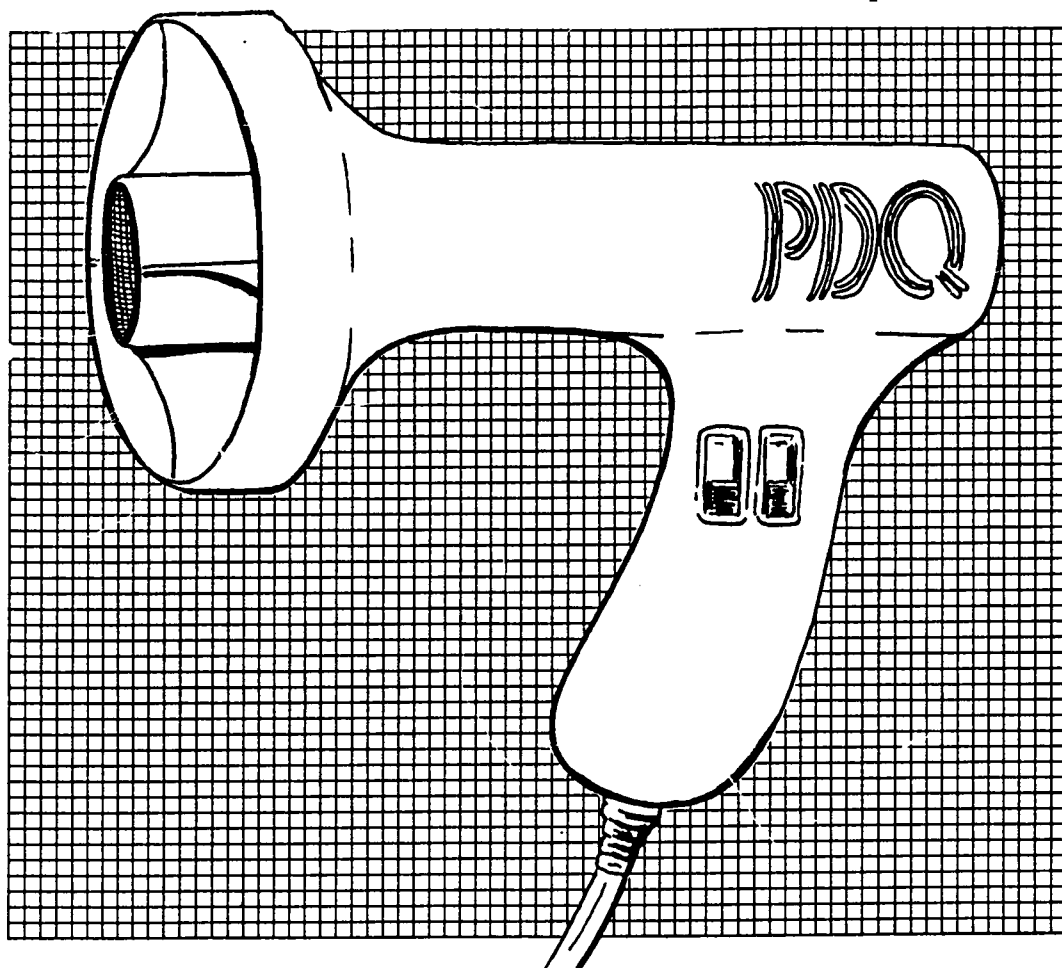
The PDQ diffuser head, combined with 1400 watts of drying power, gently circulates warm air through your hair for quick drying while it concentrates cooler air where you want it for easy styling that won't damage your hair or scalp.

For drying and styling. Nothing beats the PDQ for gentle power and speed. It may not look like an ordinary dryer . . . but then, it isn't an ordinary dryer.

so ugly, it's almost cute.

PDQ®

1400 Watts of Power and Speed.



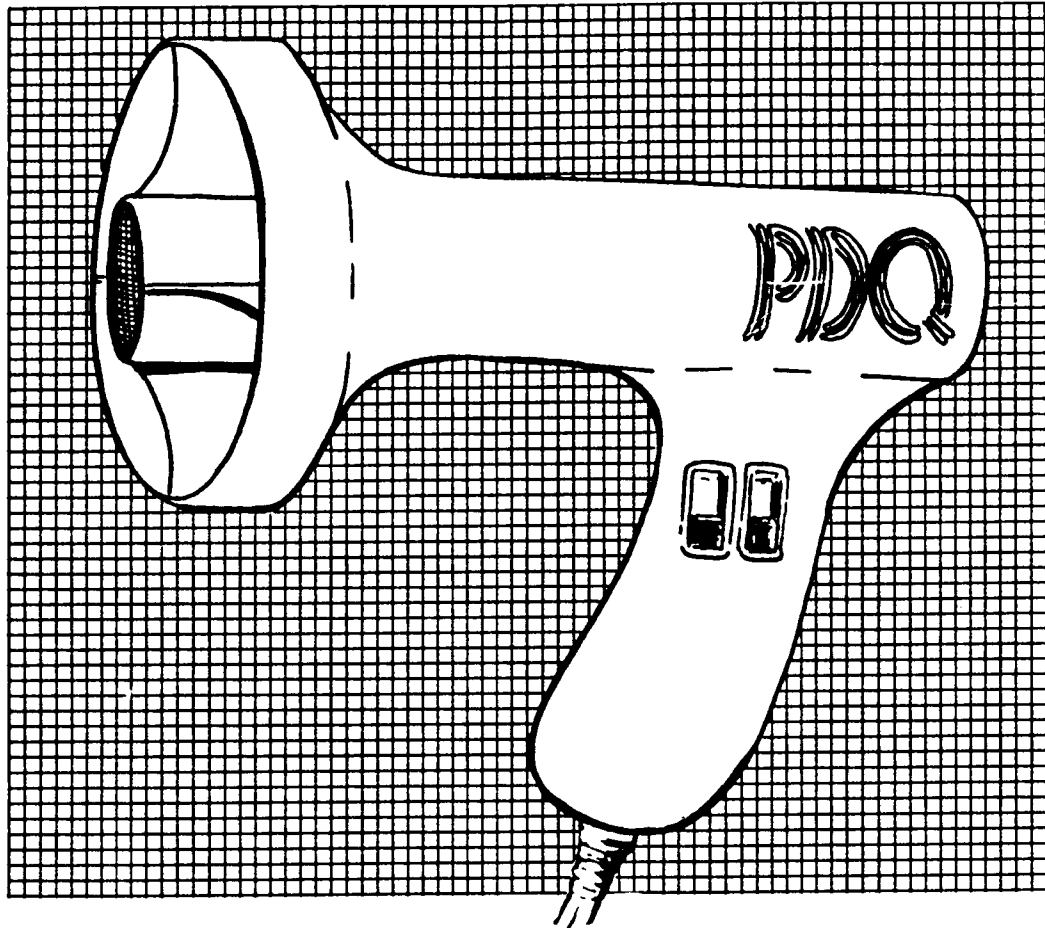
The PDQ is the most powerful hand-held hairdryer you can buy today . . . and the most gentle. The special patented diffuser head lets you dry and style your hair quickly and gently, without the damage of high heat. That means no more dry, brittle, fly-away hair.

The PDQ diffuser head, combined with 1400 watts of drying power, gently circulates warm air through your hair for quick drying while it concentrates cooler air where you want it for easy styling that won't damage your hair or scalp.

For drying and styling. Nothing beats the PDQ for gentle power and speed. It may not look like an ordinary dryer . . . but then, it isn't an ordinary dryer.

PDQ®

This ugly, little hair dryer



won't slow you down.

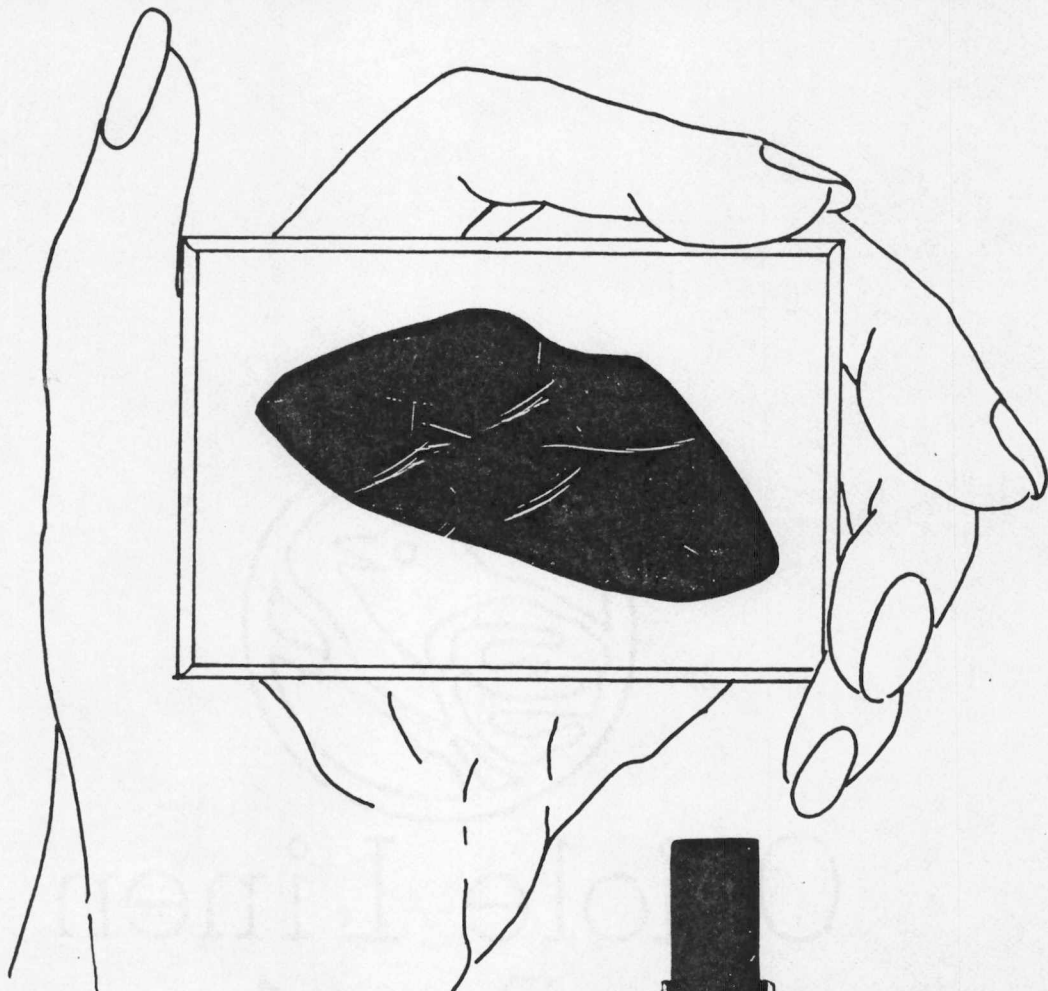
The PDQ is the most powerful hand-held hairdryer you can buy today . . . and the most gentle. The special patented diffuser head lets you dry and style your hair quickly and gently, without the damage of high heat. That means no more dry, brittle, fly-away hair.

The PDQ diffuser head, combined with 1400 watts of drying power, gently circulates warm air through your hair for quick drying while it concentrates cooler air where you want it for easy styling that won't damage your hair or scalp.

For drying and styling. Nothing beats the PDQ for gentle power and speed. It may not look like an ordinary dryer . . . but then, it isn't an ordinary dryer.

PDQ.

ELEGANCE.



Irresistible Lips All Day.

Give your lips a lift.

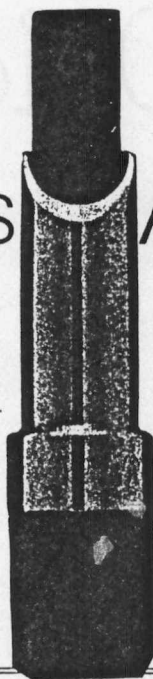
The rich emollients and natural moisturizers in new Elegance Lip Cremes protect and pamper your lips . . . all day.

Help soothe and heal wind and weather damaged lips.

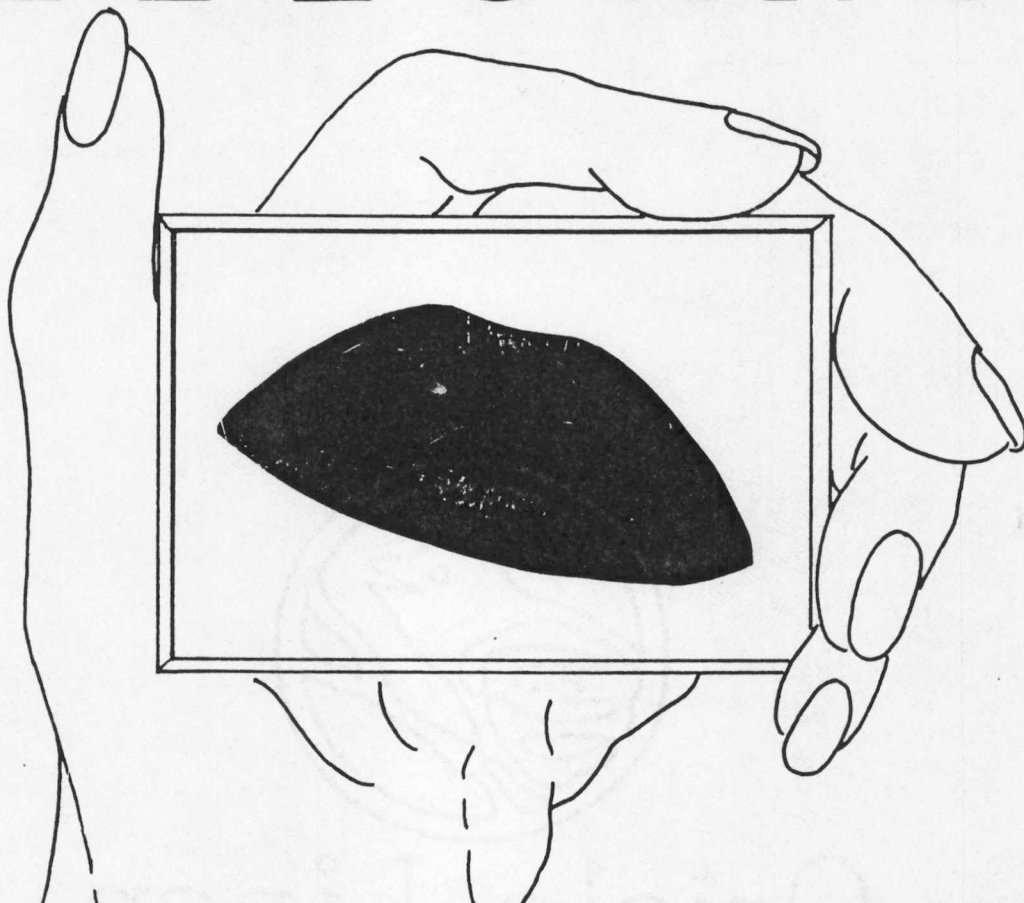
In many bright, shiny colors that last and last.

Couldn't you use a little Elegance?

Elegance Lip Cremes . . . They're new.



ELEGANCE



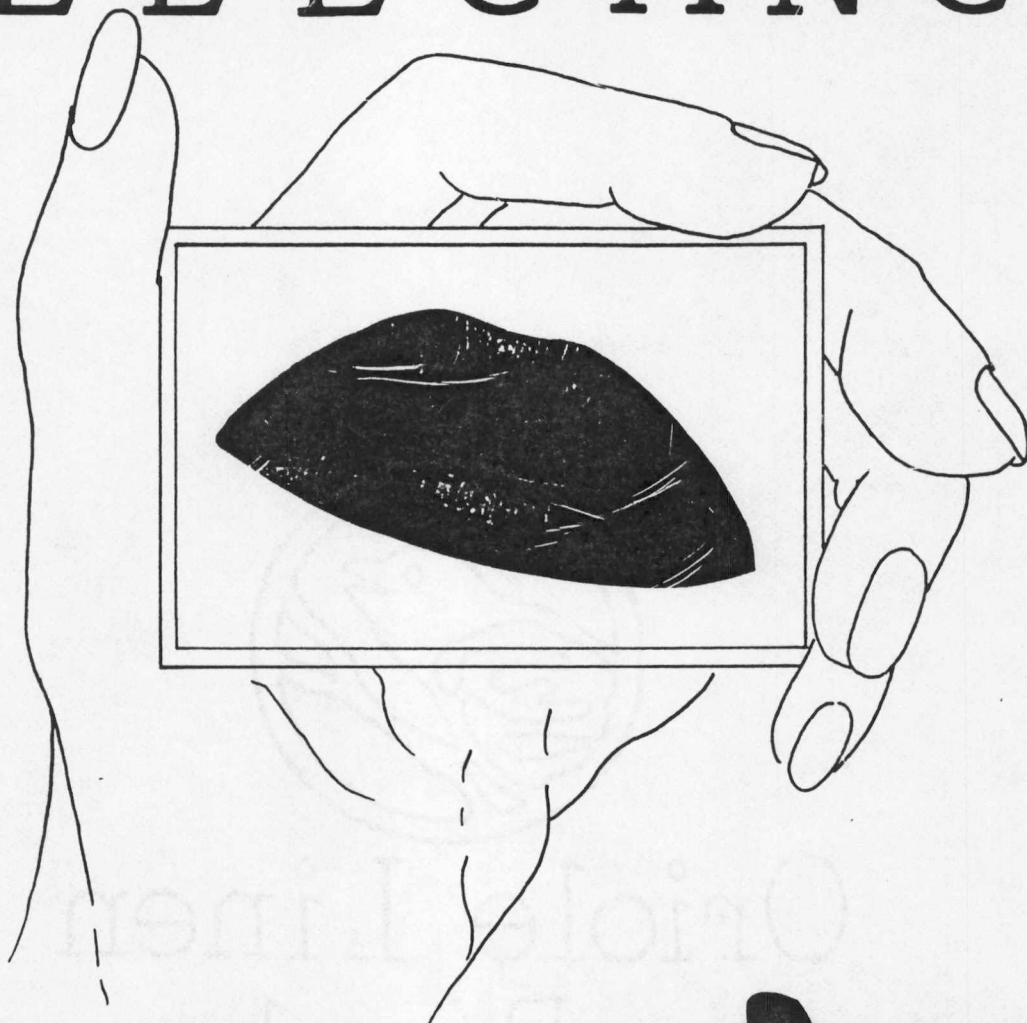
Protect and Moisten Your Lips

Give your lips a lift.
The rich emollients and natural moisturizers in
new Elegance Lip Cremes protect and pamper your lips . . .
all day.
Help soothe and heal wind and weather damaged lips.
In many bright, shiny colors that last and last.
Couldn't you use a little Elegance?
Elegance Lip Cremes . . . They're new.

All Day.



ELEGANCE.



Now, A Lip Creme That Works As Hard As
You Do.

Give your lips a lift.

The rich emollients and natural moisturizers in
new Elegance Lip Cremes protect and pamper your lips . . .
all day.

Help soothe and heal wind and weather damaged lips.

In many bright, shiny colors that last and last.

Couldn't you use a little Elegance?

Elegance Lip Cremes . . . They're new.



APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE

PART ONE

MAGAZINE READERSHIP AND OPINION PROJECT

Thank you for volunteering for this study.

This study is about the way in which women of today read and evaluate magazines. As you may be aware, the newsstands are full of magazines directed at women like yourself, with more magazines coming out almost every month. The purpose of this study is to get your reaction to a particular magazine. The magazine you will be asked to evaluate may be a magazine with which you are familiar, or it may be a magazine you have never seen before. In either case, your opinions are valuable to us and will be used in combination with the opinions gathered from other women as well. You will not be asked to examine a complete issue of a magazine, rather you will evaluate a sample of the magazine's content--both the editorial and feature content and the advertising.

You should examine the magazine as you normally would if you were considering buying the magazine or as if you had just received it in the mail and were looking through it prior to thoroughly reading it. In other words, don't feel that you have to read every page. Merely read it in a leisurely manner, stopping to read an occasional item or advertisement. You will be given as much time as you require, so take your time.

First though, would you please fill in the attached "vital statistics" pages and give them to the person in the room with you. If you have any problems with the questions or consent form, please ask him or her.

PLEASE GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE NOW.

Before we start, would you please answer these questions so that we may combine your later comments with those of others.

1. Are you

Single_____? Married_____? Separated_____?

Divorced_____? Widowed_____?

2. Please check the group into which your age falls.

Under 18_____ 18 - 24_____ 25 - 34_____ 35 - 44_____

45 - 54_____ 55 - 64_____ 65 or over_____

3. How many children do you have:

in preschool? _____

in elementary school? _____

in junior high school? _____

in senior high school? _____

beyond high school age? _____

4. Which of the following categories corresponds to your level of school?

Did not complete high school _____

Completed high school _____

Completed some college _____

Completed junior college _____

Completed four-year college _____

Graduate degree (MA, PhD, etc) _____

5. How many different magazines do you read each month?

None_____ 1-2_____ 3-4_____ 5-6_____ 7-10_____

Over 10_____

6. How many different magazines do you or your family subscribe to?

None_____ 1-2_____ 3-4_____ 5-6_____ 7-10_____

Over 10_____

7. Which magazines do you subscribe to? (Use the back of this page if you need additional room.)

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

d. _____

e. _____

8. What are your three favorite magazines? Please list them in order from the most favorite to the next most favorite, etc.

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

9. Are you employed outside the home?

Yes _____ (If YES, go to question #10)

No _____ (If NO, go to question #11)

10. Which of the following categories best describes the way you feel about working outside the home?

_____ It's just a job, if I could I would stay home.

_____ I'm career-oriented, I would rather work than stay at home.

11. Which of the following categories best describes the way you feel about working inside the home?

_____ I prefer working in the home.

_____ I plan to work outside the home sometime in the future.

THANK YOU, YOU MAY NOW HAND THIS FORM TO THE INTERVIEWER AND GET STARTED.

PART TWO

Now that you have had a chance to look through the magazine, we would like you to answer a few questions about it and magazines in general. Please read each of the statements below and place an X in the space under the phrase which best describes your agreement with the statement. Do you STRONGLY AGREE, AGREE, NEUTRAL, DISAGREE, STRONGLY DISAGREE, or DON'T KNOW/CAN'T SAY with the statement. . .

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE	CAN'T SAY
1. I enjoyed the magazine.	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _
2. I found the magazine to be entertaining.	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _
3. I found this magazine to be informative.	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _
4. This magazine is very similar to many other magazines.	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _
5. This magazine was written for women like myself.	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _
6. This magazine would be one I would consider reading regularly.	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _
7. I have a hard time deciding which magazine(s) to buy--many of them attract me.	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _
8. I think magazines in general carry too much advertising.	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _
9. I often use information from magazines to help me around the house.	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _
10. Magazines in general are too expensive.	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _
11. Often I would rather read a magazine than watch television.	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _
12. I find magazine advertisements generally more trustworthy than television commercials.	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _
13. I'm sometimes bothered when reading an interesting story in a magazine to have to "jump all over" the magazine to follow it.	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _	_ _

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE	CAN'T SAY
14. In general, magazines have kept pace with the changing roles of today's women.	____	____	____	____	____	____
15. I mostly use magazines for entertainment.	____	____	____	____	____	____
16. I mostly use magazines for information.	____	____	____	____	____	____

Below are some topics generally covered by women's magazines. Please place an X in the space to the right of the topic(s) you find particularly interesting in magazines. You may mark as many as you choose. To the far right of the topics, place another X in the space next to the topic you would like to see covered more in women's magazines.

TOPIC:	OF INTEREST TO YOU:	WOULD LIKE TO SEE MORE OF:
1. Health	____	____
2. Jobs/careers	____	____
3. Money management	____	____
4. Recipes	____	____
5. Household tips	____	____
6. Consumer tips	____	____
7. Raising children	____	____
8. Crafts	____	____
9. Fashion	____	____
10. Personal appearance	____	____
11. Exercise	____	____
12. Home furnishings	____	____
13. Time management	____	____
14. Marital relations	____	____
15. Celebrity news	____	____
16. Automotive tips	____	____
17. National & international news	____	____
18. News about successful women	____	____
19. Travel	____	____
20. Entertaining at home	____	____
21. Other (specify) _____	____	____

PLEASE WAIT. DO NOT TURN PAGE YET.

PART THREE

In addition to your reactions to the magazine, we are interested in how your interest in the magazine affects your ability to remember the advertisements in the magazine. In this section we would like you to write down what you remembered about them. Included in this could be the name of the advertiser, the main points that were made, or a brief description of the advertisement itself. The description could include whether or not there were people in the ad, what they were doing, where they were, etc.

For example, if you had seen an ad for Duncan Hines cake mix you might write the following:

"Duncan Hines--showed a color picture of a cake with chocolate icing. One slice was removed so that you could see the inside of the cake. There were no people in the ad. The headline talked about how the mix was improved so that the cake was more moist than ever. The copy talked about the moistness and how delicious it is. There was a coupon for 25 cents off."

The above is an example of almost total recall of the ad and was done immediately after seeing it. Don't be concerned if you cannot do as well for any of the ads you saw. No one can remember all of the parts of the different ones. You might only remember the advertiser or the product. Also, we don't expect you to be able to remember all the different ones you saw. That is very difficult. Just write down what you can for the ones you remember. Put the one you remember best first, then the second, and continue until you can't remember any more.

In addition to your recall of the information, would you please write down what you thought while you were reading the ad. These thoughts could be related to what you were reading, or they could be thoughts on something completely unrelated. Write down whatever was in your mind while you were reading the advertisement. Spaces for these comments and thoughts are provided on the following pages.

PLEASE CONTINUE TO THE NEXT PAGE NOW.

1. What was in the advertisement?

What did you think about?

2. What was in the advertisement?

What did you think about?

3. What was in the advertisement?

What did you think about?

4. What was in the advertisement?

What did you think about?

5. What was in the advertisement?

What did you think about?

6. What was in the advertisement?

What did you think about?

Now we would like to get your reaction to a specific advertisement you were shown.

While looking at the ad the interviewer has just handed you, please answer the following questions:

1. What did you like most about the advertisement?

2. What arguments can you think of against what was said in the advertisement?

3. Was there anything in it you found personally hard to believe?

4. Was there anything in the advertisement that you personally agree with?

5. What did you like least about the advertisement?

Directions: Below you will see different pairs of words which have opposite meanings. These pairs are separated by eight blanks. By placing a mark in one of these blanks, you can indicate your feelings toward an object. The closer you place your mark to a word, the more you feel that the object is like the word.

Example: You could evaluate the object on how funny you think it is, like this:

Funny_____X_____Serious

This would indicate that you think the object is moderately funny.

Now we would like you to indicate your feeling toward the advertisement the interviewer is showing you by placing a mark in one of the eight spaces between each of the following pairs of words. Please make your marks in the middle of the spaces, not between them. Please place a mark between each pair of words. And, please don't make more than one mark between each pair of words.

Beautiful_____Ugly

Unattractive_____Attractive

Interesting_____Uninteresting

Meaningful_____Meaningless

Convincing_____Unconvincing

Dishonest_____Honest

Fresh_____Stale

Lively_____Lifeless

Ordinary_____Unique

Annoying_____Pleasing

PLEASE WAIT. DO NOT TURN PAGE YET.

Thinking about the product in the advertisement you are now looking at, please place an X in the space beside the one statement below which best describes how you would feel about buying it.

Definitely would buy it.	____
Probably would buy it.	____
Might or might not buy it.	____
Probably would not buy it.	____
Definitely would not buy it.	____

Taking everything into consideration, what do you think would be the chances that you would buy this product? Please place an X in the space beside the one statement below which best describes the chances of you buying the product.

Certain, practically certain (99 in 100)	____
Almost sure (9 in 10)	____
Very probably (8 in 10)	____
Probably (7 in 10)	____
Good possibility (6 in 10)	____
Fairly good possibility (5 in 10)	____
Fair possibility (4 in 10)	____
Some possibility (3 in 10)	____
Slight possibility (2 in 10)	____
Very slight possibility (1 in 10)	____
No chance, almost no chance (1 in 100)	____

PLEASE WAIT. DO NOT TURN PAGE YET.

Now we would like to get your reaction to a specific advertisement you were shown.

While looking at the ad the interviewer has just handed you, please answer the following questions:

1. What did you like most about the advertisement?

2. What arguments can you think of against what was said in the advertisement?

3. Was there anything in it you found personally hard to believe?

4. Was there anything in the advertisement that you personally agree with?

5. What did you like least about the advertisement?

Directions: Below you will see different pairs of words which have opposite meanings. These pairs are separated by eight blanks. By placing a mark in one of these blanks, you can indicate your feelings toward an object. The closer you place your mark to a word, the more you feel that the object is like the word.

Example: You could evaluate the object on how funny you think it is, like this:

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Fresh_____Stale

Lively_____Lifeless

Ordinary_____Unique

Annoying_____Pleasing

PLEASE WAIT. DO NOT TURN PAGE YET.

Thinking about the product in the advertisement you are now looking at, please place an X in the space beside the one statement below which best describes how you would feel about buying it.

Definitely would buy it.	____
Probably would buy it.	____
Might or might not buy it.	____
Probably would not buy it.	____
Definitely would not buy it.	____

Taking everything into consideration, what do you think would be the chances that you would buy this product? Please place an X in the space beside the one statement below which best describes the chances of you buying the product.

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Probably (7 in 10)	____
Good possibility (6 in 10)	____
Fairly good possibility (5 in 10)	____
Fair possibility (4 in 10)	____
Some possibility (3 in 10)	____
Slight possibility (2 in 10)	____
Very slight possibility (1 in 10)	____
No chance, almost no chance (1 in 100)	____

PLEASE WAIT. DO NOT TURN PAGE YET.

Now we would like to get your reaction to a specific advertisement you were shown.

While looking at the ad the interviewer has just handed you, please answer the following questions:

1. What did you like most about the advertisement?

2. What arguments can you think of against what was said in the advertisement?

3. Was there anything in it you found personally hard to believe?

4. Was there anything in the advertisement that you personally agree with?

5. What did you like least about the advertisement?

Directions: Below you will see different pairs of words which have opposite meanings. These pairs are separated by eight blanks. By placing a mark in one of these blanks, you can indicate your feelings toward an object. The closer you place your mark to a word, the more you feel that the object is like the word.

Example: You could evaluate the object on how funny you think it is, like this:

Funny_____X_____Serious

This would indicate that you think the object is moderately funny.

Now we would like you to indicate your feeling toward the advertisement the interviewer is showing you by placing a mark in one of the eight spaces between each of the following pairs of words. Please make your marks in the middle of the spaces, not between them. Please place a mark between each pair of words. And, please don't make more than one mark between each pair of words.

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Convincing_____Unconvincing

Dishonest_____Honest

Fresh_____Stale

Lively_____Lifeless

Ordinary_____Unique

Annoying_____Pleasing

PLEASE WAIT. DO NOT TURN PAGE YET.

Thinking about the product in the advertisement you are now looking at, please place an X in the space beside the one statement below which best describes how you would feel about buying it.

Definitely would buy it.	____
Probably would buy it.	____
Might or might not buy it.	____
Probably would not buy it.	____
Definitely would not buy it.	____

Taking everything into consideration, what do you think would be the chances that you would buy this product? Please place an X in the space beside the one statement below which best describes the chances of you buying the product.

Certain, practically certain (99 in 100)	____
Almost sure (9 in 10)	____
Very probably (8 in 10)	____
Probably (7 in 10)	____
Good possibility (6 in 10)	____
Fairly good possibility (5 in 10)	____
Fair possibility (4 in 10)	____
Some possibility (3 in 10)	____
Slight possibility (2 in 10)	____
Very slight possibility (1 in 10)	____
No chance, almost no chance (1 in 100)	____

PLEASE WAIT. DO NOT TURN PAGE YET.

APPENDIX C

CODING PROTOCOLS

CODING PROTOCOLS FOR COUNTERARGUING,
SOURCE DEROGATIONS, SUPPORT ARGUMENTS
AND CURIOSITY STATEMENTS

Counterarguments:

Statements which are directed against the idea of or the use of the products in the advertising communication and which:

- (a) state a specific unfavorable consequence of using the product.
- (b) state a specific undesirable attribute of the product.
- (c) suggest an alternative method for handling one of the problems cited in the advertising message.
- (d) state a specific favorable or desirable consequence or attribute of an alternative product.
- (e) challenge the accuracy or validity of a specific argument contained in the advertising message.

These statements may take the form of simple declarative sentences or rhetorical questions. If the statement is in the form of a rhetorical question, its intent should be argumentative or express doubt or disbelief. The following types of statements are not to be considered as COUNTERARGUMENTS:

- (a) simple statements of dislike for the product idea
- (b) emotional reactions which aren't accompanied by any of the types of statements discussed above.
- (c) statements falling into any of the other categories (source derogations--supporting arguments--expressions of curiosity).

SOURCE DEROGATIONS

- (a) Statements expressing distrust or derogation of advertisements or the advertisers.
- (b) Statements expressing dislike for the overall means used by the advertiser in this presentation.

SUPPORT ARGUMENTS

Statements which are directed in favor of the idea or use of the product in the advertising message and which:

- (a) state a specific favorable consequence of using the product or a favorable reason for the using the product.
- (b) state a specific desirable attribute of the product
- (c) suggest an undesirable consequence of not using the product
- (d) reaffirm the accuracy or validity of an argument presented in the advertisement

The following types of statements are not to be considered as SUPPORT ARGUMENTS:

- (a) simple statements of liking for the product
- (b) positive emotional reactions unaccompanied by any of the types of statements.

CURIOSITY STATEMENTS:

Statements expressing interest in additional information about the product. These curiosity expressions are distinguishable from rhetorical question COUNTERARGUMENTS by your judgement on the subject's intent. If the intent was to question validity, express disbelief, or point out a counterargument, the statement is a COUNTERARGUMENT. If the intent is to honestly inquire about more information, it is a CURIOSITY statement.

APPENDIX D

COMPUTER DATA CODING PROTOCOLS

QUESTIONNAIRE CODING PROTOCOLS

Data from Questionnaire Part One

Column
Number:

- | | |
|-----------|--|
| 1 - 1,2,3 | Subject number - Nominal
001 - 099 |
| 1 - 5 | Magazine identity number - Nominal
1 = Good Housekeeping
2 = Ladies Home Journal
3 = Woman's Day
4 = Ms.
5 = New Woman
6 = Working Woman |
| 1 - 6 | Marital Status - Nominal
0 = No response
1 = Single
2 = Married
3 = Separated
4 = Divorced
5 = Widowed |
| 1 - 7 | Age categories - Nominal
0 = No response
1 = under 18
2 = 18 - 24
3 = 25 - 34
4 = 35 - 44
5 = 45 - 54
6 = 55 - 64
7 = 65 and over |
| 1 - 8 | Number of preschool children - Ratio
code directly from questionnaire |
| 1 - 9 | Number of elem. school children - Ratio
code directly from questionnaire |
| 1 - 10 | Number of junior high school children - Ratio
code directly from questionnaire |
| 1 - 11 | Number of high school children - Ratio
code directly from questionnaire |

- 1 - 12 Number of children beyond high school - Ratio
code directly from questionnaire
- 1 - 13 Education level of subject - Nominal
1 = less than high school
2 = completed high school
3 = completed some college
4 = completed junior college
5 = completed 4-year college
6 = graduate degree
- 1 - 14 Number of magazines read each month - Nominal
0 = none
1 = 1 - 2
2 = 3 - 4
3 = 5 - 6
4 = 7 - 10
5 = over 10
- 1 - 15 Number of magazines subscribed to - Nominal
0 = none
1 = 1 - 2
2 = 3 - 4
3 = 5 - 6
4 = 7 - 10
5 = over 10
- 1 - 16 Employment status - Nominal
1 = Just-a-job
2 = Career oriented
3 = Stay-at-home
4 = Plan-to-work

Data from Questionnaire Part Two

Column
Number:

- 1 - 18 Magazine written for me - Ordinal
5 = Strongly agree
4 = Agree
3 = Neutral
2 = Disagree
1 = Strongly disagree
0 = Can't say/no response

- 1 - 19 Would consider regular reading - Ordinal
 5 = Strongly agree
 4 = Agree
 3 = Neutral
 2 = Disagree
 1 = Strongly disagree
 0 = Can't say/no response
- 1 - 20 Rather read magazine than watch TV - Ordinal
 5 = Strongly agree
 4 = Agree
 3 = Neutral
 2 = Disagree
 1 = Strongly disagree
 0 = Can't say/no response
- 1 - 21 Find magazine ads more trustworthy - Ordinal
 5 = Strongly agree
 4 = Agree
 3 = Neutral
 2 = Disagree
 1 = Strongly disagree
 0 = Can't say/no response

Data from Questionnaire Part Three

Column
 Number:

- 1 - 22 Total number of ads recalled - Ratio
 direct count from questionnaire
- 1 - 23 Tot. no. of test ads recalled - Ratio
 direct count from questionnaire
- 1 - 24,25 First ad recalled - Nominal
 00 = None
 01 = Bra/Trad
 02 = Bra/Neut
 03 = Bra/Prog
 04 = Hairdryer/Trad
 05 = Hairdryer/Neut
 06 = Hairdryer/Prog
 07 = Lipstick/Trad
 08 = Lipstick/Neut
 09 = Lipstick/Prog
 10 = Dummy

- 1 - 26 First ad content recall - Interval
 1 = Product
 2 = Illustration
 3 = Brandname
 4 = Any copy points
 5 = More than above
- 1 - 27 First ad, first comment, what did you think
 about- Nominal
 0 = No response
 1 = Counterargument
 2 = Support argument
 3 = Source derogation
 4 = Curiosity statement
 5 = None of the above, related to ad
 6 = Irrelevant to ad
- 1 - 28 Strength of first ad, first comment - Ratio
 0 = No response
 1 = Trivial
 2 = Weak
 3 = Moderate
 4 = Strong
- 1 - 29 First ad, second comment, what did you think
 about - Nominal
 0 = No response
 1 = Counterargument
 2 = Support argument
 3 = Source derogation
 4 = Curiosity statement
 5 = None of the above, related to ad
 6 = Irrelevant to ad
- 1 - 30 Strength of first ad, second comment - Ratio
 0 = No response
 1 = Trivial
 2 = Weak
 3 = Moderate
 4 = Strong

- 1 - 31,32 Second ad recalled - Nominal
 00 = None
 01 = Bra/Trad
 02 = Bra/Neut
 03 = Bra/Prog
 04 = Hairdryer/Trad
 05 = Hairdryer/Neut
 06 = Hairdryer/Prog
 07 = Lipstick/Trad
 08 = Lipstick/Neut
 09 = Lipstick/Prog
 10 = Dummy
- 1 - 33 Second ad content recall - Interval
 1 = Product
 2 = Illustration
 3 = Brandname
 4 = Any copy points
 5 = More than above
- 1 - 34 Second ad, first comment, what did you think
 about - Nominal
 0 = No response
 1 = Counterargument
 2 = Support argument
 3 = Source derogation
 4 = Curiosity statement
 5 = None of the above, related to ad
 6 = Irrelevant to ad
- 1 - 35 Strength of second ad, first comment - Ratio
 0 = No response
 1 = Trivial
 2 = Weak
 3 = Moderate
 4 = Strong
- 1 - 36 Second ad, second comment, what did you think
 about - Nominal
 0 = No response
 1 = Counterargument
 2 = Support argument
 3 = Source derogation
 4 = Curiosity statement
 5 = None of the above, related to ad
 6 = Irrelevant to ad

- 1 - 37 Strength of second ad, second comment - Ratio
 0 = No response
 1 = Trivial
 2 = Weak
 3 = Moderate
 4 = Strong
- 1 - 38,39 Third ad recalled - Nominal
 00 = None
 01 = Bra/Trad
 02 = Bra/Neut
 03 = Bra/Prog
 04 = Hairdryer/Trad
 05 = Hairdryer/Neut
 06 = Hairdryer/Prog
 07 = Lipstick/Trad
 08 = Lipstick/Neut
 09 = Lipstick/Prog
 10 = Dummy
- 1 - 40 Third ad content recall - Interval
 1 = Product
 2 = Illustration
 3 = Brandname
 4 = Any copy points
 5 = More than above
- 1 - 41 Third ad, first comment, what did you think
 about - Nominal
 0 = No response
 1 = Counterargument
 2 = Support argument
 3 = Source derogation
 4 = Curiosity statement
 5 = None of the above, related to ad
 6 = Irrelevant to ad
- 1 - 42 Strength of third ad, first comment - Ratio
 0 = No response
 1 = Trivial
 2 = Weak
 3 = Moderate
 4 = Strong

- 1 - 43 Third ad, second comment, what did you think
about - Nominal
0 = No response
1 = Counterargument
2 = Support argument
3 = Source derogation
4 = Curiosity statement
5 = None of the above, related to ad
6 = Irrelevant to ad
- 1 - 44 Strength of third ad, second comment - Ratio
0 = No response
1 = Trivial
2 = Weak
3 = Moderate
4 = Strong
- 1 - 45,46 Fourth ad recalled - Nominal
00 = None
01 = Bra/Trad
02 = Bra/Neut
03 = Bra/Prog
04 = Hairdryer/Trad
05 = Hairdryer/Neut
06 = Hairdryer/Prog
07 = Lipstick/Trad
08 = Lipstick/Neut
09 = Lipstick/Prog
10 = Dummy
- 1 - 47 Fourth ad content recall - Interval
1 = Product
2 = Illustration
3 = Brandname
4 = Any copy points
5 = More than above
- 1 - 48 Fourth ad, first comment, what did you think
about - Nominal
0 = No response
1 = Counterargument
2 = Support argument
3 = Source derogation
4 = Curiosity statement
5 = None of the above, related to ad
6 = Irrelevant to ad

- 1 - 49 Strength of fourth ad, first comment - Ratio
 0 = No response
 1 = Trivial
 2 = Weak
 3 = Moderate
 4 = Strong
- 1 - 50 Fourth ad, second comment, what did you think
 about - Nominal
 0 = No response
 1 = Counterargument
 2 = Support argument
 3 = Source derogation
 4 = Curiosity statement
 5 = None of the above, related to ad
 6 = Irrelevant to ad
- 1 - 51 Strength of fourth ad, second comment - Ratio
 0 = No response
 1 = Trivial
 2 = Weak
 3 = Moderate
 4 = Strong
- 1 - 52 First cued ad - Nominal
 1 = Bra/Trad
 2 = Bra/Neut
 3 = Bra/Prog
 4 = Hairdryer/Trad
 5 = Hairdryer/Neut
 6 = Hairdryer/Prog
 7 = Lipstick/Trad
 8 = Lipstick/Neut
 9 = Lipstick/Prog
- 1 - 53 Like most, first comment - Nominal
 0 = Nothing/no
 1 = Picture/artwork
 2 = Points made
 3 = Sex-role referent
 4 = Headline
 5 = Overall approach
 6 = Source
 7 = Other positive comment
 8 = Irrelevant comment
 9 = Other

- 1 - 54 Like most, second comment - Nominal
 0 = Nothing/no
 1 = Picture/artwork
 2 = Points made
 3 = Sex-role referent
 4 = Headline
 5 = Overall approach
 6 = Source
 7 = Other positive comment
 8 = Irrelevant comment
 9 = Other
- 1 - 55 First cued ad, counterargument #1 - Nominal
 0 = None/nothing
 1 = Against points made
 2 = Against source
 3 = Against sex-role reference
 4 = Non-specific against ad
 5 = Comment irrelevant to ad content
- 1 - 56 First cued ad, strength of counterargument #1
 - Ratio
 0 = No response
 1 = Trivial
 2 = Weak
 3 = Moderate
 4 = Strong
- 1 - 57 First cued ad, counterargument #2 - Nominal
 0 = None/nothing
 1 = Against points made
 2 = Against source
 3 = Against sex-role reference
 4 = Non-specific against ad
 5 = Comment irrelevant to ad content
- 1 - 58 First cued ad, strength of counterargument #2
 - Ratio
 0 = No response
 1 = Trivial
 2 = Weak
 3 = Moderate
 4 = Strong

- 1 - 59 First cued ad, hard to believe, first comment
- Nominal
 0 = Nothing/no
 1 = Picture/artwork
 2 = Points made
 3 = Sex-role referent
 4 = Headline
 5 = Overall approach
 6 = Source
 7 = Other negative comment
 8 = Irrelevant comment
 9 = Other
- 1 - 60 First cued ad, hard to believe, second comment
- Nominal
 0 = Nothing/no
 1 = Picture/artwork
 2 = Points made
 3 = Sex-role referent
 4 = Headline
 5 = Overall approach
 6 = Source
 7 = Other negative comment
 8 = Irrelevant comment
 9 = Other
- 1 - 61 First cued ad, agree with, first comment
- Nominal
 0 = Nothing/no
 1 = Picture/artwork
 2 = Points made
 3 = Sex-role referent
 4 = Headline
 5 = Overall approach
 6 = Source
 7 = Other positive comment
 8 = Irrelevant comment
 9 = Other
- 1 - 62 First cued ad, agree with, second comment
- Nominal
 0 = Nothing/no
 1 = Picture/artwork
 2 = Points made
 3 = Sex-role referent
 4 = Headline
 5 = Overall approach
 6 = Source
 7 = Other positive comment
 8 = Irrelevant comment
 9 = Other

- 1 - 63 First cued ad, like least, first comment
- Nominal
 0 = Nothing/no
 1 = Picture/artwork
 2 = Points made
 3 = Sex-role referent
 4 = Headline
 5 = Overall approach
 6 = Source
 7 = Other negative comment
 8 = Irrelevant comment
 9 = Other
- 1 - 64 First cued ad, like least, second comment
- Nominal
 0 = Nothing/no
 1 = Picture/artwork
 2 = Points made
 3 = Sex-role referent
 4 = Headline
 5 = Overall approach
 6 = Source
 7 = Other negative comment
 8 = Irrelevant comment
 9 = Other
- 1 - 65,66 First cued ad attitude - Ratio
 directly from questionnaire
- 1 - 67 First cued ad, purchase intent #1 - Ordinal
 5 = definitely would buy
 4 = probably would buy
 3 = might or might not buy
 2 = probably would not buy
 1 = definitely would not buy
- 1 - 68,69 First cued ad, purchase intent #2 - Interval
 10 = certain
 09 = almost sure
 08 = very probably
 07 = probably
 06 = good possibility
 05 = fairly good possibility
 04 = fair possibility
 03 = some possibility
 02 = slight possibility
 01 = very slight possibility
 00 = no chance

- 1 - 70 Second cued ad - Nominal
 1 = Bra/Trad
 2 = Bra/Neut
 3 = Bra/Prog
 4 = Hairdryer/Trad
 5 = Hairdryer/Neut
 6 = Hairdryer/Prog
 7 = Lipstick/Trad
 8 = Lipstick/Neut
 9 = Lipstick/Prog
- 1 - 71 Second cued ad, like most, first comment
 - Nominal
 0 = Nothing/no
 1 = Picture/artwork
 2 = Points made
 3 = Sex-role referent
 4 = Headline
 5 = Overall approach
 6 = Source
 7 = Other positive comment
 8 = Irrelevant comment
 9 = Other
- 1 - 72 Second cued ad, like most, second comment
 - Nominal
 0 = Nothing/no
 1 = Picture/artwork
 2 = Points made
 3 = Sex-role referent
 4 = Headline
 5 = Overall approach
 6 = Source
 7 = Other positive comment
 8 = Irrelevant comment
 9 = Other
- 1 - 73 Second cued ad, counterargument # 1 - Nominal
 0 = None/nothing
 1 = Against points made
 2 = Against source
 3 = Against sex-role reference
 4 = Non-specific against ad
 5 = Comment irrelevant to ad content

- 1 - 74 Second cued ad, strength of counterargument #1
- Ratio
 0 = No response
 1 = Trivial
 2 = Weak
 3 = Moderate
 4 = Strong
- 1 - 75 Second cued ad, counterargument #2 - Nominal
 0 = None/nothing
 1 = Against points made
 2 = Against source
 3 = Against sex-role reference
 4 = Non-specific against ad
 5 = Comment irrelevant to ad content
- 1 - 76 Second cued ad, strength of counterargument #2
- Nominal
 0 = No response
 1 = Trivial
 2 = Weak
 3 = Moderate
 4 = Strong
- 1 - 77 Second cued ad, hard to believe, first comment
- Nominal
 0 = Nothing/no
 1 = Picture/artwork
 2 = Points made
 3 = Sex-role referent
 4 = Headline
 5 = Overall approach
 6 = Source
 7 = Other negative comment
 8 = Irrelevant comment
 9 = Other
- 1 - 78 Second cued ad, hard to believe, second comment
- Nominal
 0 = Nothing/no
 1 = Picture/artwork
 2 = Points made
 3 = Sex-role referent
 4 = Headline
 5 = Overall approach
 6 = Source
 7 = Other negative comment
 8 = Irrelevant comment
 9 = Other

- 1 - 79 Second cued ad, agree with, first comment
- Nominal
 0 = Nothing/no
 1 = Picture/artwork
 2 = Points made
 3 = Sex-role referent
 4 = Headline
 5 = Overall approach
 6 = Source
 7 = Other positive comment
 8 = Irrelevant comment
 9 = Other
- 2 - 01 Second cued ad, agree with, second comment
- Nominal
 0 = Nothing/no
 1 = Picture/artwork
 2 = Points made
 3 = Sex-role referent
 4 = Headline
 5 = Overall approach
 6 = Source
 7 = Other positive comment
 8 = Irrelevant comment
 9 = Other
- 2 - 02 Second cued ad, like least, first comment
- Nominal
 0 = Nothing/no
 1 = Picture/artwork
 2 = Points made
 3 = Sex-role referent
 4 = Headline
 5 = Overall approach
 6 = Source
 7 = Other negative comment
 8 = Irrelevant comment
 9 = Other
- 2 - 03 Second cued ad, like least, second comment
- Nominal
 0 = Nothing/no
 1 = Picture/artwork
 2 = Points made
 3 = Sex-role referent
 4 = Headline
 5 = Overall approach
 6 = Source
 7 = Other negative comment
 8 = Irrelevant comment
 9 = Other

- 2 - 11 Third cued ad, like most, second comment
- Nominal
 0 = Nothing/no
 1 = Picture/artwork
 2 = Points made
 3 = Sex-role referent
 4 = Headline
 5 = Overall approach
 6 = Source
 7 = Other positive comment
 8 = Irrelevant comment
 9 = Other
- 2 - 12 Third cued ad, counterargument # 1 - Nominal
 0 = None/nothing
 1 = Against points made
 2 = Against source
 3 = Against sex-role reference
 4 = Non-specific against ad
 5 = Comment irrelevant to ad content
- 2 - 13 Third cued ad, strength of counterargument #1
- Ratio
 0 = No response
 1 = Trivial
 2 = Weak
 3 = Moderate
 4 = Strong
- 2 - 14 Third cued ad, counterargument # 2 - Nominal
 0 = None/nothing
 1 = Against points made
 2 = Against source
 3 = Against sex-role reference
 4 = Non-specific against ad
 5 = Comment irrelevant to ad content
- 2 - 15 Third cued ad, strength of counterargument # 2
- Ratio
 0 = No response
 1 = Trivial
 2 = Weak
 3 = Moderate
 4 = Strong

- 2 - 16 Third cued ad, hard to believe, first comment
- Nominal
 0 = Nothing/no
 1 = Picture/artwork
 2 = Points made
 3 = Sex-role referent
 4 = Headline
 5 = Overall approach
 6 = Source
 7 = Other negative comment
 8 = Irrelevant comment
 9 = Other
- 2 - 17 Third cued ad, hard to believe, second comment
- Nominal
 0 = Nothing/no
 1 = Picture/artwork
 2 = Points made
 3 = Sex-role referent
 4 = Headline
 5 = Overall approach
 6 = Source
 7 = Other negative comment
 8 = Irrelevant comment
 9 = Other
- 2 - 18 Third cued ad, agree with, first comment
- Nominal
 0 = Nothing/no
 1 = Picture/artwork
 2 = Points made
 3 = Sex-role referent
 4 = Headline
 5 = Overall approach
 6 = Source
 7 = Other positive comment
 8 = Irrelevant comment
 9 = Other
- 2 - 19 Third cued ad, agree with, second comment
- Nominal
 0 = Nothing/no
 1 = Picture/artwork
 2 = Points made
 3 = Sex-role referent
 4 = Headline
 5 = Overall approach
 6 = Source
 7 = Other positive comment
 8 = Irrelevant comment
 9 = Other

- 2 - 20 Third cued ad, like least, first comment
 - Nominal
 0 = Nothing/no
 1 = Picture/artwork
 2 = Points made
 3 = Sex-role referent
 4 = Headline
 5 = Overall approach
 6 = Source
 7 = Other negative comment
 8 = Irrelevant comment
 9 = Other
- 2 - 21 Third cued ad, like least, second comment
 - Nominal
 0 = Nothing/no
 1 = Picture/artwork
 2 = Points made
 3 = Sex-role referent
 4 = Headline
 5 = Overall approach
 6 = Source
 7 = Other negative comment
 8 = Irrelevant comment
 9 = Other
- 2 - 22,23 Third cued ad attitude - Ratio
 directly from questionnaire
- 2 - 24 Third cued ad, purchase intent #1 - Ordinal
 5 = definitely would buy
 4 = probably would buy
 3 = might or might not buy
 2 = probably would not buy
 1 = definitely would not buy
- 2 - 25,26 Third cued ad, purchase intent #2 - Interval
 10 = certain
 09 = almost sure
 08 = very probably
 07 = probably
 06 = good possibility
 05 = fairly good possibility
 04 = fair possibility
 03 = some possibility
 02 = slight possibility
 01 = very slight possibility
 00 = no chance

VITA

Robert Charles Pearce, Jr. was born in Denver, Colorado on June 11, 1946. He was graduated from Ensley High School in Birmingham, Alabama in June 1964. The following year he entered The University of Alabama.

After two years of study he entered the U. S. Navy and served in the Republic of the Phillipines. Upon being released from active service, he re-entered The University of Alabama and completed a Bachelor of Fine Arts degree in Graphic Design in May 1972.

He was in business for himself and was an Advertising Director for retail stores while working toward the Master of Arts degree in Communications. This degree was awarded in May 1975.

He entered the Graduate School of the University of Tennessee, Knoxville, in September 1975. He received the Doctor of Philosophy degree with a major in Communications in December 1984.

The author has been employed on the faculty of Middle Tennessee State University and The University of Nebraska at Lincoln. He is currently on the faculty in the School of Journalism at Southern Illinois University-Carbondale. He is a member of Kappa Tau Alpha, Alpha Delta Sigma, the American Academy of Advertising and the American Advertising Federation.